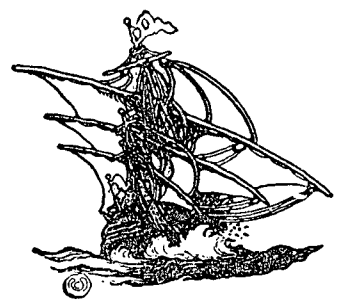
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

JANUARY 15, 1926



The Measurement of Social Progress

John Ihlder
Haven Emerson, M.D.
E. H. Lewinski-Corwin

Other Articles by

Thomas Adams
Henry Dwight Chapin, M.D.
Wm. R. P. Emerson, M.D.
Neva R. Deardorff
Herbert Feis
John D. Kenderdine

HEALTH
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SOCIAL PRACTICE

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Said of The Survey and of Survey Associates

By one of the most experienced newspaper men in America—

I sent you a check for $25 as a sustaining member of Survey a few days ago, but after reading your letter of the 21st I am enclosing herewith an additional check for $100 payable to The Survey as a second contribution.

You are making a great gift to the people of America through The Survey and Graphic magazines. You have followed the old maxim, "creep, walk, run" successfully. Too many people try to run at first and fail. Notwithstanding you are an optimist, I believe you have established publications that will grow steadily in the future....

You deserve the support of every man and woman who believes in the uplift of humanity. I am quite proud of your success and I believe your success in the future will be beyond your expectations.

San Diego, California MILTON A. McRAE

By a leading health man—

After reading the November, 1925, issue of Survey Graphic, I want to thank you personally and as Executive Secretary of the Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association for this splendid contribution to the fight for health. It is by far the most scientific treatment of city health problems for popular consumption and understanding I have yet found.

Though I had read the advance notices, I was wholly unprepared for the vigor and thoroughness of treatment which I found. My satisfaction and admiration grew increasingly as I turned from page to page.

It will give me a great pleasure to recommend it as widely as possible and to use it in our work to a very considerable extent.

HOYT E. DEARHOLT, M.D.
The Wisconsin Anti-Tuberculosis Association
Health Service Building, Milwaukee, Wis.

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

DO we know where we are going in social reconstruction? And how fast? Can we measure our progress by any method at all comparable to the mortality tables? Dr. Haven Emerson and John Ihlder, manager of the Civic Development department of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, rise to inquire (p. 465). In this connection the article on p. 480 by Mr. Lewinski-Corwin, executive secretary of the Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine, calling for a new development in the measurement of health progress, becomes especially significant.

THE Survey Midmonthly for December carried a digest of the pamphlet Military Training in Schools and Colleges of the United States: The Facts and an Interpretation issued by the Committee on Military Training. Here (p. 467) it is challenged by a member of the O. R. C., a veteran of the World War, who will be at once identified by Survey readers as director of our Field Staff.

CAN we escape from our frames? And how shall we do it? Brookwood Labor College is trying to help its students to do a little escaping and Joseph K. Hart (p. 469) has set down his impressions of how far they have succeeded.

THE best form of control of state welfare agencies is discussed (p. 471) by Stanley P. Davies, executive secretary of the Committee on Mental Hygiene, State Charities Aid Association, with reference to the current reorganization of the government of New York State.

DR. EMERSON'S brief exhortation to all of us to Make Public Health Personal cuts sharply athwart much of the present structure of social effort for the promotion of health. It should provoke comment from public health workers in public and private agencies alike (p. 477).

DARTMOUTH and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology have been experimenting with physical fitness classes for underweight undergraduates—scholars, varsity football men, or the common or garden variety. The results as shown by Dr. Wm. R. P. Emerson (p. 478) were most gratifying.

VENTILATION right and ventilation wrong—the prevalence of bad laws regulating the ventilation of schools and the efforts of organizations such as the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company and the National Tuberculosis Committee to undo their influence are discussed on page 479.

DISASTERS are "old stuff" in the experience of the relief worker and reader. But here (p. 483) is a fresh picture of the criss-cross currents that arise in a little town when the Red Cross starts to help rebuild it—a Middle Class Adventure in Relief.

WHICH is better for babies—the institution or the Home? It's an old question. In The Survey (September 15, 1925) Dr. Thompson said, with certain qualifications, the institution. Here Dr. Chapin, founder of the Speedwell Society and for many years president of the Child Welfare Federation of New York, sums up the health evidence for the boarding home.

FROM the text of the ex-soldier and his particular needs Neva R. Deardorff, secretary of the Children's Commission of Pennsylvania and an old hand at casework inside the Red Cross and out, preaches a vigorous sermon on the need for a consistent education approach to a community's problems of social reconstruction (p. 488).

AFTER spending last summer in Russia, Lucy W. Wilson, principal of the Philadelphia West Highschool for Girls, gives us her impressions of the Russian approach to education and its meaning for us (p. 490).

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

January 15
1926

Volume LV
No. 8

Cards on the Table

I. A Plea for the Measurement of Social Reconstruction

IN the game of life and death sanitarians have courted failure, controversy and abuse by staking their reputations upon the outcome of vital statistics. Why have their fellow crusaders, followers in the sciences of human salvaging, worshippers of case work, manipulators of family fates, boosters of budgets for shelter, coal and groceries, eluded the implication of figures and escaped the searching methods of those bookkeepers of the public health endeavor, the registrars of states and cities?

Is it truly more important to know the facts of the beginning and end of a journey in life than to record the failures on the highway?

Is the typhoid death rate of any more significance than the ratio of abandonment to marriages, the incidence of scarlet fever more important socially than delinquency under sixteen? Why is it that every story of sickness, every complete description of preventable defects, each measure designed to reduce death or disease begins and ends with an expression in figures of the distribution of the malady by age, sex, race, economic status, occupation, place of residence?

Are you, our very dear rivals in social reconstruction, our competitors in the arts and sciences of adapting human kind more perfectly to the physical and spiritual hazards of today afraid to challenge the future and put your generous successes to the test of telltale rates, ratios, curves, trends, medians, averages and parabolic graphs?

'Tis but the overwhelming confidence in your righteousness, the ease with which you levy toll upon the "socially minded" plutocrat, that account for lack of numerical proofs of your performance.

Honest Injun! Have you any reasonable basis for claiming that your panaceas of mothers' pensions, your patent medicines of boarding-homes, your vaccinations against crime by paroles and prison petting parties have reduced by one in a thousand of the population the dependency or delinquency of your city or state? After all, do you really know whether you, the army of social workers are going or coming? whether the battle here and there has been won by foot, horse or artillery? whether you have any general staff and if so what their actions are based upon except personal opinions?

Your case records, your methods of study and report, your principles in every respect except the collection of funds vary as widely as did those of medicine in the Middle Ages. Is it not time that somewhere, somebody should somehow set up a little shop for the study of the experience of a community with orphandom, widowhood, foundlings, dependent families and individuals, pre and post-delinquents, jail commitments, unmarried mothers, not as individual experiences to be discussed for therapeutic purposes, but as social disorders, affected by race, wages, housing, hill or valley life, work, religion.

Suppose some great state association of charities should devote itself as our leading medical and health organizations have to learning the truth and telling it.

How could we have dealt honestly in New York with our tuberculosis work if Mr. Drolet had not sieved the least block of the city for every fact relevant to the incidence of the disease?

How could we talk truly of cancer, heart disease, mental disease, infant mortality, defects of nutrition or sight, diabetes, scurvy or rickets if we were not incessantly searching for relationships between incidence or death rates and every possible factor of environment, race, work, sex, age, etc. which might give us a clue to cause and means of control?

A DIVISION of social statistics one would expect to find as the first object instead of the last to be provided for in any association dealing with the derelicts, the disasters of persons, families, trade and whole communities. What is epidemiology but the science of events, sickness whether physical, spiritual, social, as they express themselves upon the demos, the crowd? Is there not an epidemiology of murder closely related to social error in a community, and have we not found a certain periodicity in unemployment, a cyclical variation in delinquency?

Is it not true that welfare work is the one field of social relationships in which there is no dependable mass of comparable facts available for our great communities, states,

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cities, nations? No indices for the results of social effort even in the elementary form of annual rates by populations, by age and sex and race and area of residence, have been developed.

Are there usually twenty or fifty dependent children for every ten thousand children under five or ten or fifteen years in Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Alabama, Oregon and why?

What is the ordinary or non-epidemic trend of adult dependency per 100,000 of wage-earning age in Lawrence, Fall River, Scranton, Grand Rapids, Los Angeles?

Without social statistics we can neither predict coming events of a preventable nature nor offer evidence of barest and reasonable effectiveness of services delivered.

Is there any financial investment approaching in size that of social service for which so little effort is made to render accounting to the stockholders—or even to the directors of this community undertaking?

No real progress will be made in testing the merit of our treatment or in our capacity to foretell or avoid approaching social damage, until we have assembled the simple facts required for the calculation of case rates of social inadequacies and maladjustments.

CAN we not imagine or perhaps point directly to a state-wide, non-sectarian body devoted to responsible direction of social effort rather than to propaganda for a particular brand of philanthropy? Here we can set up the modest office of record. A personality will be put in charge, capable of quick and cordial liaison with state departments of welfare, correction, hospitals, health and with every least and great agency of village, town or country which deals in human adjustments and family relief.

This diagnostician of the mass will certainly be chosen from among graduates in the school of experience. There will by spontaneous attraction be drawn together a body of advisers in method, in form of record, experts in the academic and clinical study of sociology who will serve as a bodyguard of this central officer, aiding and supporting the idea and production of useful information.

Perhaps the first year there will be only the making of agreements to pool experience in a common form, but soon there will be quarterly and annual rates for the various forms of dependency and delinquency, fluctuations by country, by race, by job, by age.

The cost of such a service would not amount to a half of one per cent of the sum now diverted from private pockets by compulsory and voluntary taxation for a blind struggle with the most intricate of preventable, curable and communicable social diseases and family deaths, by public and private welfare agencies of any state.

The physician, the public health engineer, the visiting nurse, your colleagues and competitors in well doing, challenge you, the devotees of social practice, to enter the lists among believers in orderly accumulated facts.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

II. Measuring Sticks Wanted

IT is a far cry from our attitude today back to our attitude in that yesterday when it was asserted without contradiction that all the material wealth of the world would be well expended if it saved one soul from the burning. We have come to realize that whatever the value of one soul may be, it is the height of folly to expend all our resources on its salvation when thousands or millions of other souls are in quite as dire need. We have been given intelligence as well as emotion and it is incumbent upon us to use the former as well as the latter. Our resources are not to be squandered, but to be used as wisely, as effectively as our intelligence permits.

Assuming that this generalization is accepted, the next move is to give it practical application. In theory any one of several policies or of several programs of action may promise good results. In practice all of them may have their advocates who point to specific instances of success. But the occasional instance, however persuasive it may be in inducing the potential contributor to part with his money, is not what we are now after. We want to know, not that an enthusiastic luncheon club has employed a skillful surgeon to operate on three crippled children and has received from the parents of these children expressions of gratitude, but how many crippled children there are in the community, what progress is being made toward curing them all, what are the causes of their being crippled, what progress can be and is being made to reduce those causes, and finally, the rate at which we are reducing the number of crippled children. We don't expect to be entirely free of crippled children in any near future, any more than we expect to be entirely free of illiterates so long as we have feeble-minded among us. But having gotten rid of the load of curable and preventable cases we can then turn our resources to the attack upon the minimums which now appear irreducible. So we want measuring sticks that will show us what progress we are making.

For certain parts of our field we have devised measuring sticks of a sort. Classified death rates and the figures for life expectancy indicate roughly the progress we are making in overcoming disease, introduce the beginnings at least of a positive standard of health progress.

Physical well-being is, perhaps, that phase of our positive social work most readily measured. Weight and height, the functioning of our bodies, all can be tabulated, and being tabulated give us indices by which we can assure ourselves as to advance or retrogression—provided we cover a long enough span of years and provided our figures are both fairly accurate and based upon a large enough number of observed cases.

But leaving that corner of the field which is devoted to physical well-being our measuring to date seems to have been chiefly a matter of loose estimates. The question is whether it is possible to be more definite.

There are two lines which we may follow in devising our measuring sticks. The first and easier is to account for the improvement in those individuals who have been the objects of our care. A habit clinic, a family welfare agency, a child caring agency, a playground association may be able to demonstrate that among its clients a certain measurable improvement has taken place. But many if not all such agencies probably will claim that their results would have been greater were it not for environment, for outside influences, for the loss of a case before treatment is completed. That is, they represent islands of endeavor in the midst of a constantly changing sea over which they have little control, but the character of which they have the faith to believe they are slowly, almost imperceptibly changing for the better.

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This leads to the second and more difficult attempt to account for improvement in the whole community, to measure the size of the task involved in bringing that whole community up to an agreed upon standard, and then measure year by year or decade by decade our progress toward this goal. This we have endeavored to do, as in some of our health experiments. Can we do it in other parts of the social work field?

A generation ago, perhaps even a decade ago, aspiration for such measuring sticks would have been futile. But since then the world has advanced in knowledge of itself—partly by having some of its illusions dispelled. In other fields than that of social work, fairly accurate knowledge is taking the place of intuition. Because of this there is a growing demand that social workers fall in line. There is no denying the difficulty of the job; even in such a tangible field as measuring the cotton crop the federal government has thrice this year had to revise its estimates greatly—first because a prolonged drought seemed certain to destroy a large proportion of the crop, second because reviving rains came just in time to confound the wisest observers, third because the reviving rains were followed in some parts of the cotton belt by devastating floods. So in social work there will be unpredictable factors which will occasionally upset all calculations. But despite such upsets, knowledge that is fairly accurate under normal conditions makes for more sustained and effective work than does mere guessing based upon the reports of occasional scouts sent to spy out the land.

The value of measuring sticks is indicated by such efforts as that of one national agency to learn what is a fair apportionment of all funds between various fields of social work, and that in Wisconsin to rate the more progressive cities of the state on the basis of civic and social conditions. But these are not what is aimed at. What we wish to know is how far any given community now falls short of an accepted standard of accomplishment and what progress it is making, year by year or decade by decade, along the various lines of social endeavor toward that standard.

Of course there is danger in any attempt to apply a tangible measuring stick to a work the most valuable part of which is intangible—danger of two kinds at least. First we ourselves may be tempted to magnify the tangible, minimize the intangible, as illustrated by the old tale of the friendly visitor whose value was measured by the number of calls she made in a day—so easy to tabulate, instead of by the improvement in the families under her care—so difficult to tabulate, so likely to become evident not in one year or two, but after many years when the children of that family have become men and women. And the supporters of social work, hypnotized by measuring sticks, may incline more and more to those phases of their work most readily measured, leaving the others neglected. But dangers foreseen may be guarded against. They give no adequate excuse for leaving untried or unused tools that will prove of value by demonstrating some part of the progress we are making.

JOHN IHLDER

The Other Side of Military Training

By John D. Kenderdine

THE subject of military training in the United States is too important to be tossed off casually as a bit of propaganda. It involves the lives, possibly, of several million young men. If we should have to go to war again it might not be this time with two and a half years grace in which to prepare, and I refrain from thinking of the young men who would be needlessly slaughtered.

Visualize with me, if you will, a certain road in the Argonne. It is 4 P. M. on September 25, 1918, and my battalion will be in the front line when the great attack starts at dawn tomorrow. Having fought from the Vesle to the Aisne and having been rushed by camions and forced marches from the Aisne to the Argonne, we are pitifully under strength. Our men have been killed or wounded or evacuated for sickness. We need replacements urgently, and on the afternoon of September 25, twelve dark hours before the jump-off, we get them. As darkness comes we check them over to learn what experience they have had. We find that they average *two months* training! Some of them joined up just in time to catch the transport—two weeks from Hoboken to the Argonne. One of them we find offering a sergeant twenty francs to explain the bolt action of a rifle. Yet these men in twelve hours must face a situation where their lives are at stake and where only those men who perform automatically the first principles of military procedure can hope to survive. Quaker training and pacifist convictions are all very well, but they are too academic to stand up under a situation like that. Then there are A— and C—, very dear friends. A— got a bullet through the forehead when he made a frontal attack on a machine gun nest; C— attacked a machine gun nest five times and was mortally wounded on the fifth attempt. Splendid men, both; the very salt of the earth. But machine gun nests are not taken by frontal infantry attack and a system of military training such as we now have might have prevented the tactical situations which sent these men to their deaths.

The signers of Winthrop D. Lane's pamphlet (Military Training in Schools and Colleges of the United States—see The Survey of December 15, 1925) would have produced a more convincing document had they not selected as its author a man who evidently closed his eyes to the spirit of military training as it actually exists, except in isolated instances, among those who are practising it. Mr. Lane admits (page 20) that his study is not exhaustive, and I freely admit that this reply is by no means exhaustive. Would it not be well, therefore, to have an exhaustive study made, by a neutral investigator who will present the facts—all the facts—leaving their interpretation to the readers?

There are numerous places in Mr. Lane's pamphlet where his prejudice has gotten the better of his intelligence:

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First: He says (page 5) that the purpose of military training in the schools and colleges is to make soldiers. Not at all. The purpose is to provide material from which soldiers can be made in an emergency. Surely a course in first aid would not make doctors, but only material from which doctors could be made.

Second: "It is training these boys to think in terms of war purposes and military spirits" (page 7). No more than a course in first aid trains a boy to think in terms of accidents and blood. From Mr. Lane one gets the picture of hardboiled, swash-buckling militarism rampaging through the schools and the R. O. T. C. From personal observation as an instructor in military training I believe that is a picture.

Third: "Here, as in the regular army, the War Department does not care to waste time on any but the physically fit" (page 9). Nor would an instructor in first aid care to waste time training boys who were physically unfit to bandage an arm or carry a stretcher. Is not fitness, indeed, a standard of education today? What college, other than those designed for the purpose, cares to waste its time on the mentally unfit?

Fourth: Mr. Lane questions the statement that "The purpose [of military training] is to develop them [the boys] physically, mentally and morally." Anyone who has been an instructor in a C. M. T. C. camp and has seen the training in actual operation, knows that it does just that. Take citizenship, for example. Mr. Lane quarrels with the War Department for emphasizing citizenship in adveritising the training courses. On the camp schedule citizenship had only one period a day, it is true, but that period was packed full of sound advice from business men, professional men, school teachers, men who, in civilian life, contribute measureably to the human welfare, men whom you respect and admire—when they are out of uniform. Advice is given the student on his rights and duties as a citizen, his responsibility to the community, his right to free speech (yes, of course!)—such talks as are given at approved boys camps.

But citizenship went much further than the schedule. The boys were taught team work, wholesome respect for their fellows, personal hygiene and kindred subjects. Those subjects were not confined to the period on citizenship; they pervaded the daily life of the camp.

BUT these, and a dozen other points to which a reply is precluded because of space, are incidental to what the argument of the pamphlet was probably intended to be; namely, that boys are being compelled to take military training in certain of our schools and colleges. If Mr. Lane had stuck to that argument he would have strengthened his case, for then it is a question not of military training but of compulsory education.

Whether or not certain subjects should be required in the curricula of certain colleges and schools is, as Morris Perlmutter would say, something else again. If you believe in compulsory education, military science is as appropriate as, say, higher mathematics. Geometry may contribute to the fullness of your life for a few years; it will help you survey your farm (or get the firing range on a hostile army). Military science, on the other hand, may or may not enrich your life, but it does give you a dog's chance to live through to whatever life holds. Should a boy be compelled to study military science when he is temperamentally unfitted for it? Probably not, but neither should a boy be compelled to study geometry when he hates it, as I did, with a deep loathing.

One gets the impression from Mr. Lane's pamphlet that the War Department is some terrible tyrant forcing his will on the innocent youth of the country. Out of thirty-two pages, one must read to page 20 to learn that the federal government "does not officially require any school to make the military training that it offers compulsory on individual students." Neither officially nor unofficially does the War Department require military training. The compulsion is on the part of the state or the institution. If you believe that Tennessee has the right to require a literal interpretation of the Bible in her schools (though you may be an evolutionist) must you not grant that Tennessee, and Maine and Utah and every other state has the right to require military training if the people of the state wish it? If you don't believe in such power for a state, then you are quite properly opposed to the present system of military training. But let's, at least, clarify the issue.

Mr. Lane has no use for the methods used in advertising military training courses and conducting the classes. I have no doubt that many mistakes have been made and that the advertising sometimes has been objectionable. But I have known some of the best social agencies to make mistakes and I have, in my own work, used advertising no less objectionable than that employed to tell about military training.

Mr. Lane inquires dramatically (page 6) where the War Department will stop, and quotes General Pershing as stating that "The time is not far distant when instead of training 35,000 young men we will be training 100,000." Anybody who has read the National Defense Act (one, at least, of the signers of the pamphlet admitted that he had not read this act!) will have little fear of our becoming a militarized people.

The War Department has issued a statement, quoted in The Survey for January 1, 1926, to the effect that it "stands squarely in favor of military training for the greatest possible number of students *considering the available personnel, funds and equipment.*" The italics are mine, the point being that with the present funds, personnel and equipment very little can be done for military training. As for the future, it is difficult to imagine the War Department being over-supplied with funds, nor would such a condition be desirable. All we want, those of us who take our constitutional obligations seriously, is that the War Department be granted the funds with which to live up to the National Defense Act of 1920; no more, no less. That, I believe, is what the War Department also wants. The die-hard pacifists should fall to their knees and give thanks for the National Defense Act of 1920. It saved them from the militarists and it is significant that when, for the first time since the Revolution, we have a definite military policy, that policy is based on the *minimum* requirements to protect our country against attack. With such a policy and with a vision that goes further than the Palisades it is silly to think of this country becoming as Germany was before the war. That is the goal Mr. Lane holds out for us, but it doesn't fit the American mind.

There has been some publicity recently about students objecting to military training. Unfortunately the opinion of those who believe in the present system does not make news, and is therefore little heard of. (*Continued on page* 521)

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Drawn by Howard J. Young, Brookwood Labor College

Framed

By Joseph K. Hart

Lawrence Lynch yesterday took his first day off from work in fifty years. Year in, year out, since he was twenty-six, he has driven a grain and feed truck. He helped out as a night watchman, too, so he got no holidays. But yesterday was a real day off without responsibilities of any sort. Lawrence Lynch got up early to miss none of it. He came down to the stable and loafed around all day. Once the grizzled Irishman sighed and his face took on an almost wistful look. "Gosh," he said, " but I'd like to go for a good long buggy ride!"

Note from the news columns of The New York World, December 14, 1925.

THERE was, of course, no reason why Mr. Lynch could not have taken a good long buggy ride—except that he could not get away from his job. True, he had a day off, but what has that to do with getting away? The working-man is framed in his job. So are we all framed by the things we do. Our emotions are framed by our family and neighborhood living; our minds are framed by our schooling; our habits and skills are framed by our jobs, or our lack of jobs. Everything we have done, or do, becomes a part of the frame. If what we have done over a period of years has been severely, crampingly repetitive, we eventually find ourselves as effectively framed as is any of our ancestors hanging on our walls. We retain about as much capacity for the unusual as they possess; as much freedom of emotion; as much joy of living; as much ability to escape from our frames.

Time itself becomes a frame, too: not, perhaps, as it freely flows, but as we have cut it up into weeks, and months, and years; into youth, and maturity, and old age; into hours, and shifts, and time off. The days, the hours, the seasons, the years use us, bend us, deform us, break us. We become, under the usages of time, our own ancestors, framed into our backgrounds; and when we have a day off, we can do nothing but continue to hang around our frames. The thing that makes the story of Lawrence Lynch "front page stuff" is not its uniqueness, but its universality: he is but an exaggerated picture of us all!

The result of all this is, for most of us, acceptance of the world as a sort of forlorn picture gallery wherein we are to hang for our appointed seasons. But some revolt against their frames, at least to the extent of having vain dreams and vague wishes. Others go so far as to talk about overthrowing the whole picture gallery, breaking up all the frames, and releasing all the framed ones into something vaguely called "freedom." Still others think they can see a way out along the avenue of "education"—a "different kind of education, that frees us, and does not frame us. . . ."

Brookwood Labor College has undertaken this latter lead. Brookwood students come from many localities, from many occupations, but all have their frames pretty well in place when they come. They have their own habit and custom backgrounds; their own mental patterns; their own points of view; their own more or less set speeches; their own standard emotions. They talk a great deal—out of their frames. They have a good deal of difficulty in listening patiently to each other. "The percentage of uncompleted speeches is very high, here at Brookwood," said one of the members of the community to me.

Learning the points of view of "labor economics," "labor literature," and the like has tended to set up other mental patterns, more flexible patterns than those they brought to the college with them, but still patterns. Out of such learning, the college authorities found they were turning out more effective leaders for labor groups, trade union officials and the like. But the college officials were not quite satisfied with such results. They wanted to turn out, not merely more effective trade union officials, but more complete human beings, in the best sense of the word. Evidently something was lacking. What was it? Was the college merely taking these young workers out of one frame and putting them into another? Out of the occupational, practical frame, and into the "new social order" theoretical frame?

At any rate, it was decided last summer that something more revolutionary was needed: the students must be taken clean out of their frames, shaken loose from their backgrounds, and *dug into,* in an effort to find out whether they

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still possessed any inner life of their own, out of which might be developed rich and independent human personalities, as well as efficient labor leaders. "Self-expression is what they need," said one of the faculty. The suggestion was accepted, and a department of dramatics was established, with Hazel MacKaye in charge. Work in the new department was begun with the new school year.

The first results of the new departure were presented to a selected, friendly audience, on Saturday and Sunday, December 12 and 13, 1925. The Brookwood Players—meaning almost all the students in the college—presented three one act plays, as follows: A Dollar, by David Pinsky; Peggy, a play of North Carolina tenant farm life, by Harold Williamson; and The People, by Susan Glaspell. These three plays are nearly enough related to the experiences of the students to afford them the elementary materials of expression. Pinsky's play was a bit too subtle in its emotions—too infused with symbolism. But Peggy—with its very primitive setting in human passions—was, for all its remoteness from the actual experiences of the students, quite within their emotional reach. And The People plumped itself down in the midst of the school.

But, it is not as *acting* that the performance should be discussed; nor even as "dramatics"; but as self-expression. Brookwood is not just now concerned with increasing the number of actors in the world; nor with furthering "the drama." The college is concerned with the problem of increasing the amount of personal *self-expression* among workers, for their own happiness, in the first place, and for the sake of what they can do, in their own home communities, in the way of increasing self-expression among their friends and neighbors. The task is a good deal more difficult than appears at first hand. Self-expression is a mysterious thing.

"Do not these students express themselves too much, already? If they can't wait until another speaker is through, what they need is not more self-expression, but a good deal less." This is one's first reaction to the argument for more self-expression. But sitting through the performance given by the Brookwood Players threw a flood of light not only over the situation at the college, but over the whole vexed problem of education. When students—or any other people—interrupt each other continually, they are *not expressing themselves*. They are repeating phrases out of books, or bits of doctrine from their favorite authority, or allusions they have picked up: they are using words—as a framed ancestor might use them; words that mean everything, and that, therefore, mean nothing at all. They get red in the face—not with personal emotion, that understands, but with mass emotions that confuse. Their words do not explain, or analyze, or differentiate: they merely crush their opponents.

All this stood out rather clearly in the Brookwood playing. With the exception of two or three characters, the players were not living persons, but animated portraits, with their frames still almost completely intact, and uttering lines when their turns came. The plays called for understandings, appreciations, defined emotions, most of which were at some little distance from the experiences of the players. In most cases, it was not possible for the player to find his way into the strange land. They came nearest this when they were called upon to go back toward primitive human emotions—in the North Carolina tenant farm situation. But in the other two plays, the emotions were too elusive for the well-patterned minds to follow. The responses were gross, mob emotions. The laughter was forced, mechanical, as if laughter were a forgotten art. The villainy of the villain in The Dollar was stage villainy: it's as hard for a framed mind to be bad as it is to be good, or happy, in a novel way. The speeches in The People came close to being real words, and in two instances, the players came alive and expressed themselves through the words of the play; and looking through the vistas revealed by those two characters, one could see the whole human story—in its aspirations, its realizations and its futilities. But, for the most part such things did not happen: the words were merely words to be spoken, and they revealed nothing even remotely touching the speaker's own personality; they were spoken out of the frame. That is to say, most of the players went through the motions of the plays—but no emotion went through them; rather, the emotions hit them with an external impact that made the frames rattle, but that was all.

THE development of self-expression is, of course, the most important clause in the creed of the "new education." Has it a place in "labor education"? For "self-expression" opens out into the undiscovered land of individual freedom—where "capitalistic economics" is as likely to be encountered as is "labor economics," and where the student may decide that it is more important to be a human being than it is to be an "effective labor union official." There is nothing more revolutionary in modern educational theory, or practice, than the doctrine of self-expression. Probably for this reason the doctrine rarely gets beyond the stage of the theoretical.

But the development of self-expression will presently call upon Brookwood—and all schools everywhere—to decide whether students shall develop standard emotions—"union emotions" along with their "labor economics" perhaps—or whether they shall be jarred loose from their frames, quickened into individuality, made alive to their own personal emotions, until, eventually, they shall become *themselves*—unframed, independent persons, with capacity to analyze and differentiate opinion, and with something fine and real of their own to express. When they have escaped from group opinion and mass emotion into genuine personal self-respect, they will have more respect for others, and the percentage of completed sentences will rise.

But, teachers everywhere face this same difficulty. Of course, nothing frames and stills a person like his job. Associations have been formed to study and promote education *for* work. That sort of thing seems a minor matter, however, until we have become more conscious of the education that comes to us, willy-nilly, *from* our work—the framing from which there is, for most of us, no escape short of the grave. But schooling helps enormously in this same direction. Teachers must have frames—into which to fit their pupils: a perfectly framed pupil is the proudest product of the school on graduation day.

From all this framing and patterning, whether of the home, the neighborhood, the job or the school, "self-expression" takes an appeal—to the undiscovered selves of the children. Brookwood is hearing the appeal—with disregard of the ultimate consequences. Education, generally, will some day follow in the same direction, because a world of *personal selves* is the only sort of a world that can be justified on any theory of democracy.

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The Framework of the State

REORGANIZATION of the government of New York state, which has been under active discussion since the Constitutional Convention of 1915, is soon to be a reality. A constitutional amendment approved by the people at the last election limits the elective officials of the state to the governor, lieutenant-governor, comptroller and attorney general, consolidates all state activities into twenty civil departments, provides that no new departments shall be hereafter created, and in general establishes the cabinet system with centralization of responsibility in the governor. The assignment of the various state activities to the twenty departments is to be made by the present legislature, and the legislative leaders have appointed a Reorganization Commission of leading citizens headed by ex-Governor Charles E. Hughes to draft a legislative program. This commission is now actively at work.

An important element for the effective operation of the cabinet system plan, however, is still lacking—the four-year term for governor. The two-year term for governor remains, although the Reconstruction Commission and other students of reorganization had strongly recommended the establishment of a four-year term to coincide with the adoption of the reorganization plan. The possibility of a complete turn-over of the state government, including all department heads, every two years is far from anybody's idea of governmental efficiency, and the four-year term seems so essential to the cabinet system that it will doubtless be an issue of major importance this winter.

Although one-man control of state departments with the department heads appointed by the governor for terms coterminous with his is probably the general intent of the reorganization amendment, there is one specific exception in the text of the amendment which reads: "The head of the Department of Education shall be the Regents of the University of the State of New York." From this, it seems clear, and competent legal opinion supports the view, that there is nothing to prevent the legislature if it so desires from defining the heads of other state departments as commissions or boards.

The choice as between a single commissioner, a small commission, and a board, may be made in each instance with full consideration of the nature of the work of the department concerned. This is highly desirable since the application of any one cut and dried system would be likely to sacrifice needlessly effective administrative procedures which have been developed by various departments, and which have grown out of their particular needs and activities. Efforts should be made, therefore, to realize fully the benefits of coordination, but without casting aside any valuable agencies which have been shaped by actual experience and in practice have admittedly worked well.

The question of the relative desirability of one-man or commission control arises particularly in connection with the Mental Hygiene and Charities Departments. It is the same question of social welfare administration which has been an issue in so many states, and which has usually aligned students of governmental efficiency on one side, in favor of one-man control from an *a priori* or theoretical standpoint; and social workers on the other side, in favor of commission control, in the light of actual experience with various systems.

To have the direction of such departments as audit and control, taxation and finance, public works, conservation, and others which are concerned largely with business administration and material things under the direction of a single administrator appointed by the governor and changing with each new administration may well be in the interest of efficient government. On the contrary, to make subject to direct political appointment, and to change possibly every four years, the administrative heads of departments intimately dealing with the lives of thousands of human beings—50,000 in the case of the Mental Hygiene Department—with the abrupt changes in policies and program which might be involved, would seem to be a procedure of very dubious value.

The care of the insane in New York has been under a commission of three members ever since the state took over full responsibility for this class of persons thirty-five years ago. The qualifications of the commission members have been unchanged during that time: a medical member with experience in the treatment of the insane, a lawyer, and a reputable citizen of unspecified calling. Any one of the three may be elected chairman of the commission, but in practice the medical member has almost invariably been chosen. The medical member of the commission is appointed by the governor for an indefinite term during good behavior, assuring a continuous policy of development in the state hospital system. The present medical commissioner, who is also chairman of the commission, was appointed by a Republican governor and has continued in office through the subsequent Democratic administrations. The other two members of the commission are appointed for terms of six years each. In all the thirty-five years during which the commission has directed the affairs of the state hospitals, these institutions have been well administered, without scandal, have been subject to no sudden and arbitrary changes of policy, have been kept out of politics, have had progressive, intelligent direction in line with the latest developments in the field of psychiatry, and at the same time have been conducted with extraordinary business efficiency and economy.

In contrast is the experience of Illinois, where one-man control is notably exemplified. A careful valuation of the Illinois system, which was inaugurated in 1917, was made in 1920 for the State Charities Aid Association by Henry C. Wright, and brought up-to-date in the light of subsequent developments in 1922. Under the administration of Governor Lowden, who had been responsible for its organization, the new plan worked well as any new plan is rather likely to do during its first few years. A business man of wide experience served as director of the department and gave a good administration, having competent experts to head the institutions and departments under him. With the arrival in 1921, however, of the new administration under Governor Len Small, of the same political party as Governor Lowden but of a different branch, an immediate change in the head of the Department of Public Welfare was made, and with the change in director, 50 per cent of the heads of the state hospitals were changed also, the new heads being persons without special experience in the treatment of mental diseases, and lacking other qualifications for their positions. Also the expert heads of four other state institutions were replaced by men with no special training or qualifications. To quote from the foreword to Mr. Wright's study of the Illinois situation: (*Continued on page* 519)

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The Common Welfare

THOUSANDS for relief. How much for education? Or at least so it looks to one who reads daily the appealing headlines with which the New York Times advertises the plight of the hundred neediest cases. That appeal taps a strong current of holiday emotion; this year the fund has passed the quarter million mark and several thousand persons will benefit by help administered through the social agencies which present and certify the cases. But how about the people who gave their dimes or dollars?

It seems fair to argue that in large part they are not regular supporters of social agencies. They come in on the wave of Christmas goodwill just as some families make Christmas or Easter the occasion of their annual appearance at church. The value and sincerity of such an emotional response is not to be questioned—but when all is said and done it is an emotional response. They have had the thrill of giving their dollar to sick Mr. N. or widowed Mrs. A., reaping a glow of virtue with no trouble or responsibility for themselves.

Such a method as that of New York, which turns the emotional resources of Christmas to grist for the established and authoritative social work mill, is a tremendous advance on the older system of the mass dinner, the haphazard handing out of baskets, or the vicarious and pauperizing pleasures of shedding amateur aid in person. It would measure up to the fifteen Christmas points worked out by John Nelpolder for the Community Welfare Association of Springfield, Mass., to meet conditions prevailing "in a high-grade community." There is every reason to believe that the money, administered by experts, will go far to alleviate suffering and prevent even deeper distress. It is all right as far as it goes, but couldn't it go further?

Distress and suffering do not appear spontaneously. They need not even be considered an inevitable perennial. One of the organizations cooperating in the New York appeal, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, issued only a few days ago its conviction, based on actual study, that more had been done in the past twenty years to prevent and control poverty and dependency in New York city than in its whole previous history. We are making headway—slow, indeed, but certain. The public health movement had lopped off one section of the load of poverty; public aid to widows and to the victims of industrial accident, save many other families from reaching the breaking point. The knotty question of old age dependency is being studied in a fashion which justifies hope.

But the intricate and difficult path of progress requires thought as well as generous impulses. Could not Christmas generally be made an occasion when the better circumstanced give a little thought as well as money to the social illnesses to which they themselves are comparatively immune? Why not analyze those hundred neediest cases and get across simply and clearly to every donor and every reader what lay behind the breakdown—scanty wages, cramped and unlighted houses, mischance or improvidence? To get understanding for the causes of family breakdown, sharpened by that feeling of neighborliness which assaults the most crusty at Christmas time, would multiply the value of the giving many times.

FACTS, in the patient, precise laboratory sense of exact knowledge, have for some time been accepted as the essential source material for scientific theory. This same attitude is now shifting the emphasis of the social sciences from the elaboration of "laws" and pure theory to the more difficult and laborious job of fact finding. Nothing could more effectively illustrate this changed viewpoint than the recent series of national conferences, including the meetings of the American Economic Association, the American Statistical Association, the American Farm Economic Association, the American Association for Labor Legislation, the American Association of University Instructors in Accounting, the American Sociological Society and the American Political Science Association held in New York between Christmas and New Year.

A healthy reluctance to generalize, a cautious refusal to go beyond the limits of reliable investigation, a challenge of unsupported theory, marked the discussions that followed each paper. The heads of the labor bureaus of two large industrial states, for instance, refused to compare their accident prevention figures "until we get better exposure statistics." A noted statistician urged not only the collection of statistical evidence, but its careful and intelligent arrangement and use. A nationally known teacher of economics pointed out at length that the social sciences cannot hope to solve the problems within their field with the success that has rewarded the material sciences until they are willing to develop a comparable spirit and technique of patient, exact investigation. That the economists and sociologists are alive to this necessity is reason to hope that in the field of the social sciences, in problems of community and individual maladjustment, we may achieve as much success as has rewarded material science in the prevention and cure of disease.

There were not many social workers in evidence at the sociological and statistical sessions at which facts of fundamental import for social work were being discussed. But at a luncheon under the auspices of the National Community Center Association the headworker of Greenwich House struck a note which should resound loud and clear no less at social work than social science gatherings. "Let us be sceptical," she said. "Let us speak what we think and feel, and not what we think is expected of us at a conference." The meeting over which she presided caught that spirit to such an extent that it was able to hear a social scientist define a gang as a phenomenon of the city's "interstitial areas" without blinking and swing promptly back

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to a straight-from-the-shoulder discussion of boys as boys. More scepticism and less terminology is a first-rate formula for those who are up to their elbows in the practical application of the scientists' facts.

THE final chapter in the story of the Ku Klux Klan's effort to defeat and then to unseat Ben B. Lindsey as judge of the Denver Juvenile Court has been written, with Judge Lindsey firmly in possession. After the suit brought by the defeated candidate and another citizen to declare the office vacant had been decided in Judge Lindsey's favor by the district court the candidate, Royal R. Graham, committed suicide (see The Survey, June 1 and Nov. 1, 1925). The case was nevertheless appealed to the supreme court by the surviving plaintiff, who later, however, moved for its dismissal. Over the protest of attorney engaged by the Ku Klux Klan this motion was on December 21 granted by the supreme court and the case dismissed. "In a recent court action against the former Grand Dragon," Judge Lindsey writes, "brought by the attorneys for my Klan opponent to obtain payment of their fees in this contest, that official testified on oath that the fight against me had been engineered and paid for on orders from the Imperial Klan headquarters at Atlanta, Georgia."

FROM California comes an illustrative instance of the value of statistics as an aid to social diagnosis, for which Dr. Emerson pleads elsewhere in this issue (p. 465). When the Jewish Committee for Personal Service in State Institutions compiled the records for its third annual report, it was discovered that 155 Jewish inmates had been committed to state hospitals for the insane from San Francisco, while only 84 had gone from Los Angeles. The committee asked Dr. Samuel Kohs, executive director of the Oakland Jewish Federation, to try to account for the discrepancy. Considered in relation to the Jewish population of the two communities, the difference was less striking than the crude totals suggested, but still substantial. Dr. Kohs concluded that in the southern part of the state either the mentally ill are at large in greater numbers than is to their best interests, or that commitment is more difficult than in the North or that other forms of care and treatment are being provided. But which? Watching its records closely the Committee decided that while a certain number of facts could be found to support any of these theories, probably the determining difference was the excellence of the work for the mentally afflicted in Los Angeles county. The county psychopathic parole officer was able to show that in 1924 only 10 per cent of the persons referred to her through the courts had had to be committed to the state hospitals. These were chronic cases for whom nothing but custodial care can be offered at the present time. The remaining 90 per cent were cared for in the county without the stigmatizing process of commitment to a state institution—probably with greater economy, and certainly with happy result of sparing them a severe social handicap. In this case the statistical clue led to the discovery of an effective piece of social organization and practice: other California counties can measure themselves against the record of Los Angeles to see whether their work for the mentally ill is more or less adequate. Only by the adoption of some such standardized and indisputable basis of discussion as the various kinds of social morbidity rates for which Dr. Emerson argues, can a community see its problems and test the efficacy of its solutions.

NOT so long ago the girl who preferred a job to "society" or "helping mother" between school and marriage was viewed askance. Today, by preference or necessity, an increasing number of women of all economic levels are trying to work out a combination of matrimony with wage-earning or professional careers. The industrial, domestic and social readjustment that this situation calls for offers a problem that is cheering or disturbing, according to one's point of view, but that certainly is engrossing the attention of an impressive number of agencies.

A national conference on women in industry is to be held in Washington, January 18 to 21, under the auspices of the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor. In endorsing the conference, Secretary of Labor James J. Davis stresses the fact that in the last ten years the number of married women in manufacturing and mechanical industries has increased 41 per cent, and in trade 88 per cent. "It is impossible to separate entirely the problems of motherhood from the conditions under which women are employed," he remarks. "There is nothing more important in our civilization, and every thinking American must realize this situation." The conference will be made up of representatives of about fifty organizations, including various labor groups, the Y. W. C. A., American Red Cross, General Federation of Women's Clubs, National Woman's Party, Parent Teachers Association, National Council of Jewish Women, W. C. T. U., National Association of Colored Women, and the D. A. R.

In her annual report, Mary Anderson, director of the Women's Bureau, emphasizes the need of a special appropriation to carry out an extensive study of "the problem of the married woman who works." This problem, "and especially of the mother who works, linked so closely as it is with the welfare of the home and the family, is naturally one of the most vital as well as one of the most complex problems before the country today," is Miss Anderson's view.

The General Federation of Women's Clubs approaches the question from another angle. Mrs. John D. Sherman, federation president, believes that "the American homemaker is restless" because "she wants relief from drudgery and wants the world to recognize homemaking as a profession." The women's clubs are preparing to ask Congress for recognition of the profession of homemaking in the next census. The General Federation is also making a nation-wide survey of home conditions, in a campaign to improve American homes, and, presumably, make American women more willing to remain in them.

The Ontario Minimum Wage Board, which has been in

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existence four years, and "has now issued orders covering nearly the whole field of female labor outside the home, save for a few trades of an exceptional type," announces that it "will shortly give attention to the problem of female home work, a problem which, it is said, no board on this continent has yet attempted to solve, though it is one of great importance for wage-working women."

Perhaps there is a limit to the problems which any "board on this continent" can hope to solve.

"THE Government ought always to be alert on the side of the humanities," said the President in the brief section of his annual message headed Mothers Aid. "It ought to encourage provisions for economic justice for the defenseless. It ought to extend its relief through its national and local agencies, as may be appropriate in each case, to the suffering and the needy. It ought to be charitable."

Starting from that text Mr. Coolidge urges consideration for "a law in aid of motherhood" in the District of Columbia, "which will hereafter be a model for all parts of the Union." Apparently he refers to measures to establish a mothers' pension act now before Congress. Without at all disparaging this recommendation, it should be pointed out that governmental alertness on the side of humanities should not stop there. It is at once more charitable, more economical, more sensible to prevent destitution, dependency and sickness than to attempt to salvage human wreckage. Yet the thirteenth annual report of the Children's Bureau, just issued, and the national budget, made public the day after the President's message, show the narrowing limits to which one of the most constructive pieces of federal social work in aid of motherhood is held.

This year's appropriation for the Children's Bureau is smaller by $12,000 than last; there is a further cut of $19,000 in the 1927 estimates approved by the Bureau of the Budget. The estimated government dollar for 1926-7 gives 10.52 cents to the Veterants' Bureau; 9.55 to the Navy; 9.94 to the War Department, including the Panama Canal; while the other departments, also in cents, stand: Agriculture, 4.33; Commerce, 0.86; Interior, 7.66; Justice, 0.70; Post Office (the deficiency of its revenues) 0.71; State, 0.47; and Labor, 0.25.

In other words the many urgent pieces of work and study carried on in the Department of Labor must be financed on one four-hundredth of the government's budget, while the Veterans Bureau and the War and Navy Departments together draw nearly a third of that budget. The comparison even with the Department of Agriculture, which has four and a third cents to the quarter cent for Labor, would be startling if year after year we were not compelled to recognize this strange indifference to children as a national crop.

Merely to glance through the pages of the Children's Bureau report issued recently is to see the ranks of those who depend on some branch of its work for public understanding of their needs. There are hundreds of thousands of babies and tens of thousands of mothers reached through the services supported jointly by state and federal funds under the Sheppard-Towner Act, administered by the Bureau; there are studies and investigations on behalf of sick children and well; of babies born out of wedlock; children in school, and leaving school to enter shops and factories; children in street trades, on farms and in the shucking sheds of oyster canneries in southern states, where conditions were found to be practically unchanged since a federal study in 1918 despite the improvement in child labor laws in one of the states under investigation.

Many compelling requests for investigation and counsel just go unanswered because of the limitations of the Bureau's resources. In the light of the prevailing discussion of lawlessness and crime, one of the most appealing of these is for research in the prevention of sex delinquency among young people and in the care of those who become delinquent. A year ago the Bureau announced its hope that funds would be forthcoming to finance such a study, requested by several groups, for which it has ample authority. None the less the present crisis, in which such data would be invaluable, finds it still waiting.

SOME acceptable plan of economic relief for the American farmer has become necessary in the view not only of the farmers themselves but of those who are interested in business prosperity and those interested primarily in social welfare; incidentally also of those who desire an endorsement of the present administration at the next general election. Out of the resultant clamor of conferences, oratory and "calm discussion" certain probable lines of action begin to emerge.

President Coolidge, in his address before the American Farm Bureau and in his message to Congress, suggests a farm relief program. He proposes "actively and energetically to assist the farmers to promote their welfare through cooperative marketing." To accomplish this the Pesident suggests the further development of the present farm loan and intermediate credit banks which have now "put out loans at moderate rates to about 350,000 farmers," and an increase in the facilities of the general banking system. "All of these agencies need to give more attention to farm needs. . . . They should be equipped to supply not only credit but sound business advice and the farmers to a much better extent should learn to use all these facilities." And the administration will support in the present session of Congress a measure drafted by "leaders in the cooperative movement, with the advice of the Department of Agriculture" under which, as President Coolidge interprets it,

> the farmers would have the active and energetic assistance of the government in meeting the problem of surplus production. Through consultation and conference the best experts of the country would be employed as the needs require, and methods of storage, credit and marketing would be devised. The agencies created would have at their disposal the active cooperation of the great organizations of the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce and federal banking. Their representatives at home and abroad would be engaged in locating and supplying domestic and foreign markets. The fundamental soundness of this proposal rests on the principle that it is helping the farmer to help himself.

This very general statement embodies many of the features for which the Granges and similar farmer organizations agitated ten and twenty years ago. The fact that

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conservative political leaders are willing to embody them in a party program now is evidence of the seriousness of the present agricultural situation. So real is the emergency however that the farmers as a whole are not satisfied with the offer of remedies which they demanded in earlier decades. A minority at least press for more radical measures. Here is where the lines of cleavage are showing.

IN the view of the administration, any solution based on direct government price fixing, or price fixing through the buying and selling of farm products by the government would be "a dangerous undertaking."

> Ultimately [says the President] it would end the independence which the farmers of this country enjoy as a result of centuries of struggle and prevent the exercise of their own judgment and control in cultivating their land and marketing their produce.

The rural insurgents come back at the Republican tariff as something which protects industry at the expense of agriculture. With corn down forty cents a bushel this year, the President's remarks to the Farm Bureau about duties "levied solely to protect the farmer" were accepted with some hesitation by the press of the Middle West.

Possibly as a result of the expressions of dissatisfaction with the administration program, as outlined at Chicago, President Coolidge, a fortnight later, made it known that the administration would approve a bill creating a commission to dispose of agricultural surpluses, provided that the measure has no price fixing feature and does not require the government to market surplus crops. By what means such a commission would, under these limitations, "dispose of agricultural surpluses" has not been described. During January, a series of conferences between the President and his advisers will endeavor to harmonize the various programs suggested for farm relief. At the same time, the agricultural committees of both the House and the Senate will begin hearings for the benefit of numerous farm organizations.

The type of farm relief which President Coolidge denounced as "class legislation" in his Chicago address, has been brought up this session of Congress by Senator Hendrik Shipstead, Minnesota Farmer-Laborite. Senator Shipstead's proposal is a bill which would create a government commission to fix prices for farm products. Its sponsors point to the fixing of railroad rates by the Interstate Commerce Commission by way of analogy.

> I am opposed to price-fixing as a governmental principle [Senator Shipstead is quoted as saying in a recent newspaper interview], but the administration has seen fit to protect the price of manufactured products by the tariff. Big combines, like steel manufacturers, are allowed to set their own prices. The prices of electricity, telephone, street car rates—all are fixed by government authorities. As long as this system continues I say the farmer should have the same advantage as the manufacturers. He can't fix his own prices.

Some modification of the McNary-Haugen bill before the last Congress will undoubtedly be introduced into the present session with the hope, not too securely based, of providing a compromise between the administration and the "farmer-radical" positions. The senator from Oregon would attack the basic problem of distribution by establishing a "ratio price" for certain agricultural products, and setting up machinery for government purchase and export of surplus production of these commodities. The ratio price of the basic agricultural commodities selected (wheat, flour, rice, corn, wool, cattle, sheep, swine) would bear the same relation to the pre-war price as the current all-commodities price average bears to the pre-war all-commodities price average. It is proposed that this export corporation, with a capital of $200,000,000 shall have "all the powers of a private corporation to perform all the necessary functions involved in handling, marketing, processing, buying and selling of the basic agricultural commodities." Substitutes for the McNary-Haugen bill were offered in the last session by Senator Norris of Nebraska and by Representative Voigt of Wisconsin.

Beneath all this political-economic argument is a growing unrest based on the hardships, the discouragement and the consciousness of injustice borne by the American farmer. The numerous farm organizations continue to clamor for action, as against speeches and committee hearings. The farmer is becoming increasingly articulate in his demand for "legislation that will stabilize and protect agriculture at least in the same degree that labor and industry have been protected."

THE next great social conflict will not be between labor and capital but rather between city and country. This is the prophecy of a United States Senator who has been observing Europe. What are the symptoms? They may be best discerned in such countries as Germany where for months the economic problem was reduced to its elemental proportions. With German manufacturing industries practically at a standstill and the official blockade ended, Germany resumed its functioning as an economic unit. One impelling task stood starkly before the nation, namely to supply food to a population already partially starved. The farmers were capable of supplying a large portion of the necessary food, but who was to pay them for their labors? The people who needed food most had no money, or if they had, it was not likely to be worth accepting. Urban dwellers accused farmers of hoarding food and farmers deeply resented official and non-official requisitionings. The crisis passed without serious trouble and German industries are once more well along the road of recovery. Farming, however, has not recovered; it is the one German business which is so inadequately financed that it cannot go on without emergency credit facilities. In the meantime, the resentment which the farmers have stored up against the city remains. It represents, according to the senator, a deeper and wider social schism than any which he encountered in all of Europe.

The state of New Jersey has elected a Democratic governor. His opponent received a majority of votes in eighteen counties but the vote of three urban counties was sufficient to defeat him. These same voters gave President Coolidge an enormous majority one year ago. When they vote as citizens of the nation, they appear to vote as Republicans or Democrats, but when they in turn vote as citizens of the commonwealth of New Jersey, they divide into rural and

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urban partisans. Likewise, the state of New York asks a referendum on four important constitutional amendments, and the vote is clearly along lines of rural-urban division. But these are unconvincing illustrations. The population of the United States is exceptionally mobile and tends to become more so; the farmer of to-day may be a factory worker tomorrow. The lines of an encompassing rural-urban conflict would be drawn only when organized city consumers confront organized agricultural producers with mutually exclusive demands. The potentialities of such an impasse are difficult to envisage. Its tension would reach to the foundations of our whole economic system.

TO a mere mother it must be appalling as well as inspiring to realize that it takes research in anthropology, nutrition, pediatrics, psychology and psychiatry to chart that seemingly natural thing—child development. Such are the fields represented by the research workers in child development recently called together by the new committee on child development of the National Research Council. Under the chairmanship of Bird T. Baldwin of the University of Iowa, there came together twenty-eight of these workers, representing nearly a score of schools, colleges and universities. As a result of the conference, they resolved themselves into five committees to study animal development in relation to child development; the physical growth, the nutrition, the medical care, the psychology and the mental hygiene of the young child; and the literature of research in all these fields. Strangely enough, such a program deals with data which, in scientific form, were relatively unknown before the opening of this century. Yet in them lies much of the world's hope of making itself over.

A NEW publication, called Industrial Psychology and further defined as The Journal of Human Engineering, has made its appearance in that hopeful new field bordering both economics and psychology, where so many industrial problems are being dealt with through increased efficiency of both labor and management. Donald Laird, director of the psychological laboratory of Colgate University, is managing editor. Its editorial board includes a distinguished group of American economists and psychologists and successful industrial managers and also several English, French and German leaders in the same field. In the first (January) number there are competent discussions of Industrial Dissatisfaction, Control of Output in Offices, Handling Men Through Their Self-interest and Eyesight in Industry.

There are, of course, two obvious dangers confronting such a journal. Management is always much more articulate than labor, and it is easy to fall into the habit of representing only the point of view which is so easily obtained and so clearly expressed. Also, such a magazine could, without difficulty, fill its pages with detailed descriptions of isolated management programs, which, standing alone and without adequate interpretation, lack either general interest or general application. If this promising young magazine can avoid these twin dangers and, under the guidance of its unusually capable editorial board, afford a genuine clearing house for fresh facts, experiments and theories in industrial psychology, its possibilities for interest and usefulness are almot unlimited.

THE Harlem Number of The Survey last spring was dedicated to the belief that the Negro had become conscious, or was becoming conscious, of a culture of his own out of which creative expression might be expected to contribute richly to the general patterns of American life. More and more, the outcroppings of experience and feeling which confirm this belief are being recognized publicly. Two Negro magazines, Opportunity and The Crisis, have each held belles-lettres contests which have elicited distinguished work in both prose and verse. Now come the Harmon Foundation awards, which seek to extend recognition on a more spectacular scale and a broader basis to Negro achievement in all fields.

During 1926 seven first awards of $400 each and seven second awards of $100 each are offered by the Foundation to Negroes who excel in literature, music, art, industry, science, education and religion, and an eighth grant of $500 is to be given the person—white or colored—who is adjudged to have made during the year of the award "the greatest contribution toward improving the relations between white and Negro people in America." The awards will be administered by the Commission on Church and Race Relations of the Federal Council of Churches, to which applications and recommendations may be made for the current year up to June 1, 1926.

EVEN more spectacular than the political volte-face which put proportional representation and the council-manager type of government into Cleveland two years ago, making it the largest city in the country to accept this form of administration, is the revolution which has just been accomplished in Cincinnati. Here a long and deeply intrenched Republican machine has been ousted, a council-mayor government has been installed, and to cap the climax the insurgent lawyer who led the fight, single-handed at first and against enormous odds, to give the city a responsive and progressive government has been elected mayor. Murray Seasongood, this mayor, is one of six candidates elected to the city council—which numbers nine—with the support of the Charter Committee and the body of voters who were finally and thoroughly aroused to the need of change.

In common with other Ohio cities Cincinnati is hampered by constitutional restrictions on municipal finance which may limit sharply the adequate upbuilding of the city's services. But with a clear majority, a charter made to their order, and a capable executive—Lieut.-Col. Clarence O. Sherrill, superintendent of public buildings and grounds of the District of Columbia, as city manager—the "new crowd" in Cincinnati have a brilliant opportunity.

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HEALTH

Make Public Health Personal

IN not much more than two hundred years we in this country have evolved at least three plans of action *for* health rather than against disease. For convenience they may be called enforcement, education and participation.

Much was added to the safety of life by the engineers and builders and chemists. Water came cleaner, gross dirt was quickly removed, houses and schools more commonly courted light and air. But most of this was done by order, by law; science, or what passed for it, spoke with authority even if not to an understanding audience.

But after a century, and almost two, there was a great awakening to the fact that health officers, ordinances, sanitary authority, could not by edict and force make the world entirely healthy through the passive submission of the patient. The new plan grew out of the evidence of the bacteriologist who not only grew the poisonous vegetables of infectious diseases in his tubular greenhouses, but traced them on their excursions from hand to mouth in the homely paths of human converse. We began to listen to the gentle wise man of Providence, our respected Dr. Chapin, who put more trust in washing of hands than in burning of chemical candles of foul incense to unknown gods. How could health be ordered or attained through authority, by demand for wholesome physical surroundings alone, when the elusive causes of ill health were to be found in the food habits of the housewife who didn't know a calory or vitamin when she met them, in the sneezes of the reckless father?

So the fanatic, the enthusiast, the optimist, the reformer, crusaders all for other people's good, suddenly found a new job and whirled into line, often with scant courtesy, right in front of the health officer and the doctor, and began to dig into the consciousness and conscience of their neighbors with spades full of the strong fertilizer of health education. They have been in full swing for a quarter century—and in some places twice as long, and still the job is unfinished. Sanitation was good, wholesale education was better, but what deserves the title of *best* for health?

Only within the past three years has the whispered answer become audible. To share actively in the inexhaustible possibilities of health is becoming a cherished ideal, and its rewards are not to be obtained by law or gift, not from talking about it or listening to others tell how they got their allotment, but by demanding a service from health's votaries for ourselves individually.

The chief distinctive service of medicine is its ability to interpret the form and structure, the performance, the growth and function, of the individual human body and its enlivening spirit in terms of health and disease. Through the seven ages and decades each of us needs a counsel of health based upon such an understanding of his own living body as only the physician at present is trained to offer. Let no one divert us from the demand that the medical sciences be re-directed to a new purpose of which the practical symbol is the individual health examination.

The layman's responsibility is chiefly to demand for himself all and more for health than in the past he has required from the medical sciences for the treatment of disease. The layman's opportunity today is to make public health personal. He is little affected by highly colored statistical charts of other people's deaths. He is little concerned with that impersonal amorphous intangible something called public health. Only as he can split off from the mass a little edible information, a fraction of individual well-being for himself, does public health become a matter of family budget.

The layman's responsibilty is to demand for purely selfish personal reasons that an honest, trained, non-partisan whole-time health officer be engaged and suitably paid, and that he be so provided with funds as to permit him to give common health services which will make private health agencies quite superfluous in his city. It would be hard to find a more wasteful procedure than that which the majority of American communities are following today, wasteful in persons, in resources, in respect and credit. With but few exceptions our cities are in a stage of childish amateurism in health service, because chiefly of lack of plain leadership and responsibility, because more money than brains is spent in official and volunteer agencies.

The layman may better decide to invest in personal health than to continue to support the extravagances of broadcasted public health. An adequate program for city health becomes steadily simpler and less expensive as the individual layman buys health for himself and his family in the open market and does not wait for some representative of the taxpayers to tell him how to bring up his children.

Adequate protection against fire does not begin or end with a fire department. Police departments do not relieve us of the responsibilty of keeping the peace individually. Will you return to the era of the competing social political and financial rivalries of the volunteer fire companies, to the reckless tyranny of the vigilance committees? Do you really believe that those threadbare words cooperation and coordination can excuse a continuation of multiple irresponsible amateur public health agencies, bred in propaganda and boosted by drives?

The layman's responsibility is to be so well taught and well served as an individual and for his family, at his own expense and for purely selfish personl reasons, that he will need in his city only those official services which can be carried out only by the authority of sanitary law. These will be moderate in cost and should be provided by the tax levy under the health officer. Health is personal, and only in certain clearly defined fields can the responsibility for it be unloaded upon official health agencies; rarely, if ever, upon volunteer health agencies.

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

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Health Diagnosis in College

WHEN we consider the fact that our college men are a highly selected group it is amazing to find that at least half of them are below reasonable standards of physical fitness and that the condition of fully a third calls for immediate care. These underweight men, as Dr. Charles B. Davenport has shown, are from three to six times more subject to respiratory diseases and from six to twelve times more subject to tuberculosis than is the general population. Physical fitness classes at Dartmouth and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology have shown that these men can be made to gain in weight at three or more times the rate of gain of an average sixteen-year-old boy. A group of fifty who followed our physical fitness program gained also half as much again in height as did a similar group who did not receive special care.

Nutrition clinics have now effectively demonstrated their program in all the age sections of the growing period. The only field in which extensive work has not been done as yet is the industrial group paralleling high school and college years. Even here experiments have shown such results as those achieved recently in an industrial plant in Indianapolis where nineteen young men and women in thirteen weeks made an average gain of four and a half pounds—an annual rate of 18 pounds.

The fundamental necessities of the program are: the discovery and removal of the causes of the particular case of underweight and physical unfitness; and the coordination of the medical, educational and other social forces requisite to increase the health intelligence of the individual and afford him a background of adequate health habits. A later report will deal with an extended series of studies with this problem of health intelligence in which among other showings it is made evident that seniors in college and even in medical school do not have better health or exercise better health intelligence than that found among first year students.

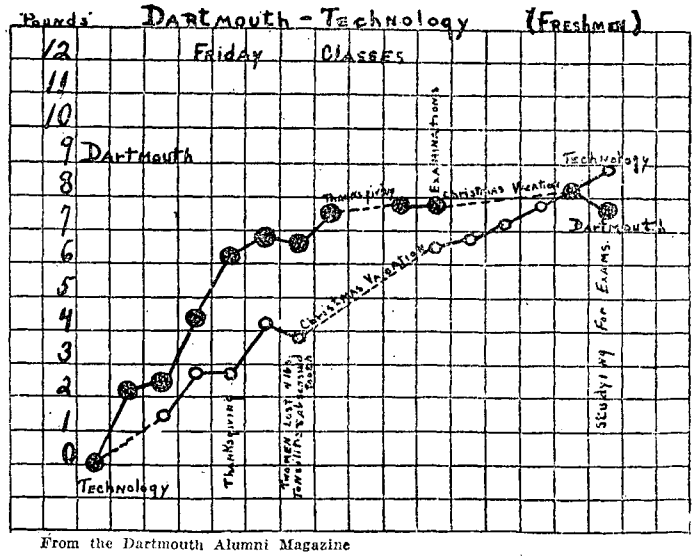
It is clear that the average college man has in him possibilities of growth and health, together with the increased effectiveness and enjoyment of life that these bring with them, considerably beyond the present standards of attainment. Thus in the Dartmouth class of 1928, 427 men not in physical fitness classes showed as a group practically no gain in weight from October to May except that the number of obese men had increased 50 per cent—the only men to whom an increase was a disadvantage. In comparison with this, sixty men in the physical fitness classes gained for the time they were on the program during the first semester at an annual rate of twenty-four pounds. During the second semester eighty-nine men went forward at an annual rate of twenty-five pounds. The best results were secured by groups of upper classmen and athletes whose annual rates were respectively forty-one and forty-two pounds.

No part of the work with athletes has been more interesting than that carried on with the members of the football teams. The problem of staleness is very closely associated with one of the chief causes of unfitness—overfatigue. As soon as this began to appear in the fall of 1924 the matters of rest, adequate compensation for dehydration, and so on, were dealt with. The men in charge of training and the members of the teams entered into the new program with effective cooperation and used it to help in making their schedule of games successful. An incident in this undertaking well illustrates the importance of getting at fundamentals rather than being concerned with more apparent conditions. The record of feeding showed that the men were eating too much at their evening meals and not enough in the morning and at noon. Nothing was said about this matter but provision was made for improving rest and other factors. Within a few days the total amount of food consumed had increased as was desired and the distribution between the meals had taken care of itself.

At the Massachusetts Institute of Technology another aspect of feeding was studied and it was found that the average daily total of calories was 3,000, ranging from 2,400 to 4,100. The average for the third of the class making the best gains and that for the third making the least gains did not vary from one another by more than 50 calories. The problem is not so much how much food is eaten as how much is assimilated.

The causes for physical unfitness are found by means of physical-growth and social examinations. In a representative group the students examined were found to have an average of 6.3 "social" defects and 5.8 physical defects. About half of the latter were concerned with obstructions in nose and throat and a quarter were matters of posture. Recommendations for expert nose and throat examination were made to 84 per cent—48 per cent received negative reports and 36 per cent were advised to have operations. Those who deferred having recommended operations performed averaged only half the gain in weight recorded for the whole group. A relationship was found between gain in weight and the number of physical defects. The men who had from two to four defects each averaged 378 per cent of the gain to be expected at their age; those with five to seven averaged 310 per cent and those with eight to ten averaged 153 per cent.

It has been most instructive to observe the progress of men utterly fagged out by the requirements of gymnasium work who came by adequate resting to the point where they enjoyed this training and profited by it. One student who had suffered from a tuberculous spine and other abnormal conditions had waited several years under expert care before



From the Dartmouth Alumni Magazine

The effect of "making the team" on rate of gain. This chart shows the remarkable gain of 17 underweight athletes from the freshman and sophomore classes. These men had the special objective of gaining weight in order to "make the team."

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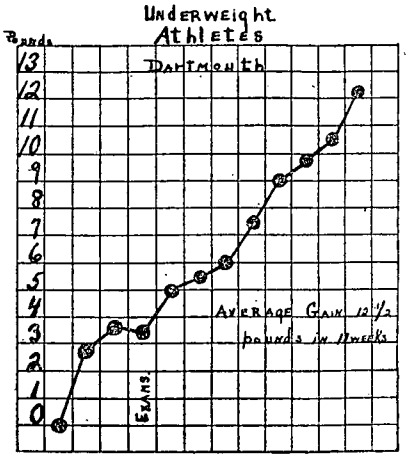
undertaking a college course. On entering the physical fitness class he said he knew he would be helped by it, but that he had proved that he could not make any gains in weight. He also was unable to take a number of articles of food important for improving his condition. He started in on malted milk and a graham cracker for his extra lunches. A wise provision in the physical education section enabled him to give recreation time to resting until he gradually came to be ready for cross country walks. By April he was able to eat any desirable food. The first eight weeks he gained a pound a week but unfortunately the pressure of examinations did not permit him to hold this rate as constantly as his condition required. He was able, however, to keep well ahead of his original state and to make for the year a college grade double that of the average of his class.



From the Dartmouth Alumni Magazine

UNDERWEIGHT ATHLETES

This chart illustrates the effect of extra-curricular activities on rate of gain. The Dartmouth class gained an average of 7½ pounds in 7 weeks and then because of "chinning season," examinations and holidays made no gain in the following 8 weeks. The Technology class shows a steady gain, passing Dartmouth at 15 weeks.

The average gain is chartered from the actual gains and losses of each week. The average gain reckoned at the end of the class on the basis of full time attendance would be somewhat less.

The chief obstacles to progress at Dartmouth in the order of their effect as measured by loss of weight were: grouped examinations; the "chinning" season, carnival and vacations; and competition in athletics and other extra-curricular activities. Experience with men in the physical fitness classes gave aid to the administration in determining last year that "chinning" season (activities connected with the selection of fraternity members) should be deferred until the second year instead of continuing to be a source of energy expenditure for the already overburdened freshman. How to conduct examinations without permitting them to require so many ill-spared pounds of flesh from students is receiving careful attention. The temptation to indulge in many all-night parties when the student is at home for vacation and the urge toward achievement in extra-curricular performance calls for added health intelligence alike on the part of students, parents and members of the faculty.

Studies were made in the relationship of college grades to physical fitness. It seems to be evident that college grades have a closer relationship to the weight-height index than that shown by the results of the psychological tests on which the decile groupings are made. It is also very clear that obese men—20 per cent and more over average weight—have on the average a lower percentage of high marks and a higher percentage of low marks than appears in the other groups. In some situations the underweight show unusual ability to gain honors but that this is done at a serious cost of strain is shown by their high percentage in college mortality. The men in the safety-weight zone had only a third as many grades of less than 1.0 as did those who were underweight. The underweight group on the other hand ran below the average for the class in the attainment of grades from 2.5 up while the safety-weight group ran above the average. Even among the underweight men not in physical fitness classes those who made gains in weight during the year averaged .6 more in marks than those secured by the underweight men who lost weight in the same period.

WM. R. P. EMERSON, M.D.

It's Cheaper to Be Right

HALF the states in the Union live under a so-called health law which wastes at least $3,000,000 a year in building costs and uncounted hundreds of thousands in coal, and yet cannot be anything but injurious in its effect upon health.

This incorrigible offender is the ordinary measure which regulates the ventilation of schools. It traces its ancestry to the last decades of the nineteenth century when German and British investigators set up the theory that adequacy of ventilation was to be measured by the carbon dioxide content of the air and adequate ventilation required that thirty cubic feet of air per person per minute be pumped into the room. When the American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers was formed in 1895 it naturally put its support behind the accepted theory of ventilation—and beginning with 1900 it wrote it into the statute books with a force quite unjustified by its scientific validity. That scientific validity was completely discredited by the monumental report of the New York State Commission on Ventilation, published in 1922 (See the Survey, Dec. 15, 1922) but the task of unmaking the mischievous laws which rest on the outproved theory is just begun.

The New York State Commission found, in brief, that the most harmful air is overheated air; that when a great volume of air is pumped through a room by mechanical measures it must be heated beyond a point compatible with health or comfort in order to ensure an even temperature and avoid drafts; and it recommended for schools and similar buildings a system of open windows protected by deflectors to send the cool air upward, and a gravity exhaust system to carry out the hot and vitiated air. "The most important article of ventilating equipment is the thermometer," it concluded, "and however simple or complex an apparatus may be installed for air conditioning, a constant and intelligent vigilance in regard to operation and overheating is the price of health and comfort."

When the temperature goes higher than 68 Fahrenheit there is a distinct and measurable loss of efficiency. In the item on this point printed in the Survey for November 15, p. 214, the statement should be amended to read that a rise from 68 to 75 occasions a loss of 15 per cent in the amount of physical work done, not a diminution to 15 per cent. Susceptibility to colds and other diseases of the respiratory system also is greatly increased as the temperature is raised. The primary factor in bad ventilation is a warm, moist and still atmosphere. Good ventilation means cool air, moderately moist, in motion, and slightly variable in temperature. The ideal in ventilation therefore is a supply of a small amount of cool fresh air, not a vast heated volume.

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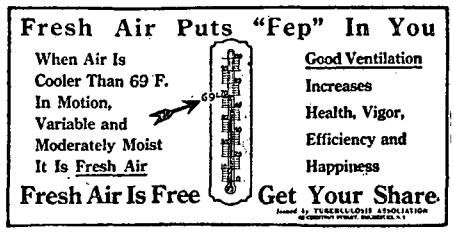
Fresh Air Puts "Fep" In You
When Air Is Cooler Than 69 F. In Motion, Variable and Moderately Moist It Is Fresh Air
Good Ventilation Increases Health, Vigor, Efficiency and Happiness
Fresh Air Is Free
Get Your Share

To remedy the present travesty of pouring money in and keeping health out, a triple-barrel campaign is under way. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has published a booklet on The Janitor and the School Child pointing out what care and intelligence can accomplish in existing schools and telling once more the simple standards which have been found so much more desirable than the elaborate. The National Tuberculosis Committee has under way a campaign for open windows everywhere, to which allusion has been made in these pages. And the American Public Health Association at its recent meeting in St. Louis passed a series of resolutions which will form one of its major activities this coming year:

Whereas, hundreds of thousands of dollars are wasted every year on this continent in the installation and operation of systems of school ventilation which are not only not beneficial but are positively harmful to the health of school children, and

Whereas, in the light of current knowledge, the supply of as large an air volume in school rooms as 30 cubic feet per minute, per capita, is necessarily accompanied with dangerous overheating of the school room in order to avoid resulting drafts, and

Whereas, the use of ozone and other chemicals for treating schoolroom air has little or no scientific justification and little or no practical value;

Revolved, That the system of ventilating schoolrooms by fresh untreated outdoor air, admitted at the window with gravity exhaust ducts for removing vitiated air from near the ceiling, is the most generally satisfactory method of school ventilation; and

Resolved, That state laws and city regulations interfering with such scientific and economical methods of school ventilation should be repealed in the interest of the public health.

Here is one point at which saving the taxpayers' money by *not* spending it meets with scientific sanction.

The Need for Pathometry

IT has been estimated that in the United States 350,000,000 working days are lost each year by gainfully employed persons because of illness. From the standpoint of national economy we should be curious to know the relative importance of the principal diseases causing this huge loss and how it is distributed among the several parts of the country and by race, occupation and age.

In 1880 and then again in 1890, attempts were made by the United States Census office to ascertain in a crude way certain facts concerning the incidence of illness. With Dr. Billings' retirement as director, this canvass of illness was unfortunately abandoned. As long ago as the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the friendly societies and other mutual insurance organizations in England and some of the countries on the continent, prompted by the need of an actuarial basis, gathered facts about their sickness experience. The data in the possession of sickness benefit funds in this country are of more recent date and more circumscribed in extent. They constitute, however, a valuable source of information concerning morbidity. Several of the eight state commissions which were delving into the problem of health insurance between 1917 and 1919 brought forth interesting material based on this experience. The insurance companies issuing health policies likewise possess statistics of value, but I believe that no company has made its experience public. Some of the large industrial and commercial establishments keep adequate records of the sickness prevalence of their employes, and these figures are in many instances available.

Barometric Beginnings

The earliest community attempts to gather morbidity statistics in this country related to diseases of an infectious or communicable character. Beginning as a local practice in certain states and cities, the reporting of specified diseases by physicians has now become obligatory throughout the country, and the body of data thus obtained forms the basis of the young science of epidemiology. Not all the notifiable diseases are reported with the same degree of completeness. Enough information, however, is available in every progressive community to make the epidemiology of contagious diseases of barometric value to sanitarians. They can watch not only the seasonal fluctuations in the prevalence of certain diseases, but also the secular trends and cyclical movements by which they can be guided in making certain anticipatory moves.

The importance of tuberculosis became recognized more than a generation ago, and in spite of the former opposition to reporting this disease we now possess adequate data as to its prevalence.

The disquietingly high prevalence of mental disease in this country has called forth a machinery for recording in a more or less uniform manner the social facts pertaining to its victims.

In recent years, interest has centered in cancer and diseases of the heart and circulation. Efforts are being made to obtain facts of medical and social significance with regard to these diseases.

The workmen's compensation laws furnish a clue to the amount of disability from injuries sustained in connection with employment. We have no similar information about the less direct damage to life and health caused by other industrial hazards, such as dusts and poisonous and harmful substances used in manufacture. Only a few states require the reporting of cases of occupational disease, and a still lesser number provides compensation for the disabilities arising out of occupation. The difficulties of collecting occupational morbidity statistics are increased by the fact that physicians are not always able to show a definite relation between the illness or disability and the occupational hazards involved.

Where Statistics Are Lacking

Outside of the groups above mentioned, we are practically without a compass in the great morass of disease. We have, to be sure, the mortality statistics. From these, by inference, we make deductions about the prevalence of various diseases, but the information thus obtained is presumptive at best and of no value in relation to diseases, like hookworm for example, which rarely result in death, but whose social and economic significance is enormous. Death statistics, even when they are based on accurate certifications, give only a partial account of illness, for in the published tabulations the principal or final cause of death is recorded and the contributory and associated diseases omitted. The contributory diseases often may be more important than the terminal cause from a social point of view.

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Furthermore, the ratio between morbidity and mortality in each disease is never constant. These ratios change not only with the varying virulence of the causative organism, if the disease is of germ etiology, but also with the age distribution of the population of a given community, the economic environment and the existence or non-existence of medical institutions and their adequacy or inadequacy. Hence, generalizing with regard to morbidity on the basis of mortality is hazardous and may be utterly misleading.

The Measurement of Illness

When more facts about disease are made available, and scientifically analyzed and correlated, we will have developed a science akin to epidemiology. I would have liked to call it morbidology or morbidometry, if it were not undesirable to use a Greek and Latin root in the same word. To be consistent in word-coining I will use the term "pathometry" —the measurement of illness.

By the aid of pathometry we will be able to figure the sickness rate in the several occupations and to establish prevailing norms.

Pathometry is indispensable to many social projects. It would enable us to gage the extent to which a community requires hospitals for the acutely and chronically ill, homes for convalescence and rehabilitation, and all kinds of other special institutions for the care and prevention of disease.

Pathometry will be of service in fixing fair premium rates for companies writing health insurance. It will likewise be helpful to all kinds of benevolent or mutual self-insurance schemes.

A Basis for Social Insurance

If in our process of socialization we should reach the day when health insurance will not be taboo, we will have in pathometry an invaluable aid in readily establishing an actuarial basis for sound financing of the requirements of illness.

What steps should be taken to lay a solid foundation for this science? There are several quarries from which much building material can be extracted. Several sickness canvasses have been made in recent years. The New York State Charities Aid Association published a sickness survey of Dutchess County in 1915; the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company conducted six surveys in various localities; the Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine conducted a sickness canvass in 1919 in connection with the dispensary survey; the Framingham, Mass., demonstration yielded valuable information, as did some of the studies by the state health insurance commissions. Recently, the United States Public Health Service published the first results of the sickness canvass in Hagerstown, Maryland.

These canvasses are valuable starting points. Similar surveys ought to be made in various localities from time to time. However, they are expensive and can not be counted n for constant replenishment of our store of knowledge. he United States Census Office should be urged to resume the decennial collection of a few simple facts about the revalence of illness.

The vast experience of hospitals and dispensaries, as well s that of health centers and visiting nurse associations could e brought to bear on the situation with comparative ease f machinery were created for the collection and tabulation of the whole or of a part of the mass of available material. Hospitals very seldom publish medical statistics in their annual reports. Not all hospitals tabulate their morbidity data even for their own information. Those, however, that take the trouble to do this, do not make any effort to have their tabulations comparable with those of other hospitals by using the same classification of diseases or the same forms of tables. There is not even a uniformity in the meaning of such common terms as mortality rate, for example. In some hospitals, patients dying within twenty-four or forty-eight hours after admission are not included in the mortality rate of the hospitals; in other hospitals, they are.

It seems to be an almost criminal waste of opportunity to fail to utilize the available hospital and dispensary material for developing our morbidity statistics. In the annual report for 1919 of the Peter Bent Brigham Hospital of Boston Dr. Harvey Cushing remarks:

> It would be an exceedingly desirable thing if . . . steps were taken . . to inaugurate a uniform method of presenting the surgical reports from all major hospitals in the country. If this were done our hospital reports might become of greater clinical value for reference than many of the occasional papers in medical literature, and I see no reason why they should be surrendered, as many of them are, to the administrative activities of the institution alone, which after all are merely incidental to the main purpose of the institution—the professional care of the patients.

It should not be very difficult for every community to pool the statistical experience of its hospitals. After the first steps have been taken and the hospitals have agreed to cooperate in furnishing the desired data, a national conference should be called under the auspices, perhaps, of either the United States Public Health Service or of the American Medical Association or of the American Hospital Association, with a view of agreeing on a uniform procedure and a uniform method of recording and correlating hospital statistics.

The experience of the Hospital Information Bureau of the United Hospital Fund of New York, which conducted an experiment on a limited scale with six hospitals, will undoubtedly be of value. The statistical experiment referred to comprised the data from six general hospitals in New York city, and the method of handling the material was that suggested in 1913 by Dr. Charles F. Bolduan. In the year 1923, the Hospital Information Bureau received over 21,000 certificates from the six hospitals, and several tabula-

For further material on the history and need of morbidity statistics, the author cites:

Edwin W. Kopf, "Some Essentials of Sickness Statistics," Proceedings of the Actuarial and Statistical Society of America. Vol. IV, pp. 108-134, 1917.

The 23 Annual Report of the United States Commission of Labor, describing "Workingmen's Insurance and Benefit Funds in the United States," Washington, 1909.

Charles F. Bolduan, "Hospital Morbidity Statistics," Department of Health of the City of New York, No. 5 Reprint Series, April, 1913.

E. H. Lewinski-Corwin and A. Eleanore Conover, "Medical Statistics of Hospitals," Journal of the American Medical Association, August 23, 1924.

E. H. Lewinski-Corwin, "Morbidity Statistics," American Journal of Public Health, Nov. 1925.

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tions of the material were made. When it be remembered that outside of state hospitals for the insane and the tuberculosis sanatoria, there are about half a million hospital beds in this country, it is easily realized of what inestimable value the pooling of even a part of the statistical information readily at hand can become to the promotion of pathometry.

E. H. LEWINSKI-CORWIN

THE Journal of the American Public Health Association quotes some ingenious estimates by Sir Macolm Watson to measure the economies of preventing malaria in terms of automobile tires. Certain estates in Malaya which employ nearly 30,000 coolies have succeeded in saving about 114,000 pounds of rubber annually by preventing malaria. This saving amounts to nearly half a million dollars, or almost $20 per laborer. Applied to rubber production, it is a saving of four cents on the pound; and with an average of ten pounds of rubber to a tire, the saving comes to $2 for the four wheels and a spare. "It is seen therefore," concludes the Journal, "that automobile owners and all who use rubber in any form are directly affected by malaria prevention, which is the greatest single cause of disease in the producing countries, though sanitation of every kind is known by physicians and sanitarians to pay handsome dividends."

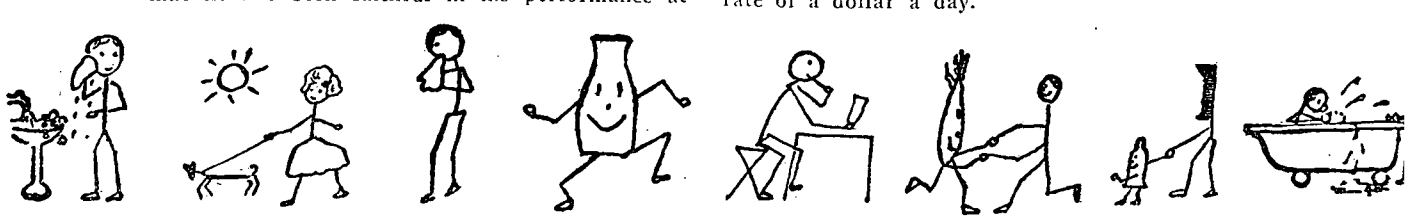
HEALTH on wheels might be suggested as one slogan for the Pennsylvania State Department of Health. Its Health Car, "a motorized piece of evangelism," went its itinerant way among the Pennsylvania counties during the summer months, while the staff of physicians, dental hygienists and nurses examined thousands of babies and children of less than school age. It endeavored to carry the gospel of good health to agricultural districts, villages and towns; in every case the carrying out of the advice based on its examinations was left to the private physicians to whom the parents were urged to take their children. During the same months a mobile milk laboratory went on the road to test chemically and bacteriologically the raw milk delivered by individual dairymen to pasteurizing plants, as well as the pasteurized product. Thousands of miles of Pennsylvania highways, and a good many miles of byways, saw also the Water Car, also equipped as a travelling laboratory, which had been devised to protect the motoring public from impure water. Each private well or spring which could be certified by the car's personnel as safe was placarded with that approval, and a corresponding warning was affixed to those which were found to have been polluted.

FROM the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute comes an optimistic pink chart on which to register primary health habits. It has space for fifty young pupils for four weeks, and it is suggested that two health habits be stressed each week. The figure 1 shows that the habit in question has been performed that day, o shows it omitted, and the minus sign, indicating absence from school, is changed to a plus if the child satisfied the teacher that he has been faithful in his performance at home. The chart is to be marked at the close of the session to show conduct during the day. The Institute suggests a classification of school health habits and home health habits, and recommends that one of each be stressed each week. The former include appearance, neatness, safety (covering the sneeze, removing rubbers and other extra wraps in school, looking both ways before crossing the street), posture, exclusion (which means no pencils or fingers in months) and attitude. The home health habits are cleanliness, sleep, diet, exercise and elimination, each defined in the circular which accompanies the chart, from which the illustrations are taken.

THE DAILY CHART OF GOOD HEALTH HABITS

	Clean hands Brushing teeth					Baths
Names of Pupils	M	T	W	T	F	
John Wilson	11	01	11	10	11	1
Jane Reed	11	11	+	+	+	1

IN ONE YEAR forty-two people went from Monongalia County, West Virginia, to fight tuberculosis in sanatoria in various parts of the country. This was only a small proportion of those who needed this care; others had to do their best at home. In June, 1924 the Monongalia County Tuberculosis Association met and decided to follow the example of other parts of the state and start a hospital of its own for tuberculosis. This autumn that sanatorium became an accomplished fact through the team work of a good part of the county. The Association first chose a site not far from Morgantown, with an abundance of sunshine, a southern exposure, woods, and—finishing touch—an acre of coal underlying part of the ground and available just at the rear of the building to supply fuel for steam heat and the kitchen range. Then it took the public into its confidence and asked for grants from organizations and individuals—$200 to furnish a room, or $500 to build and equip one. Several thousand dollars was soon available. And then the building began. Engineering companies gave their services for locating buildings and roads. Social and civic clubs armed themselves with scythes and axes and cleared several acres of ground. The cement block and brick companies of Morgantown gave the brick, and the bricklayers' union laid the foundations in one afternoon, donating their labor, while the women's clubs served refreshments. Lumber companies and electrical companies provided labor and materials, and the traction company is extending the electric line to the site. The lathers' union lathed the building and the plasterers gave their services and some supplies. Not to be outdone, the County Court of Monongalia County made available $7,000 for maintenance from county funds, under the state law which authorizes any county court in West Virginia to lay a levy for tuberculosis sanatoria. The state bugdet also provides a fund for the maintenance of indigent patients at such institutions, payable through the state Board of Control at a per capita rate of a dollar a day.



Chicago Tuberculosis Institute

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

A Middle-Class Adventure in Relief

Though the occasion of this narrative—the tornado which turned Murphysboro upside down—may no longer be news, the attitudes which it discloses are as old and as new as human nature. The great storm had as little regard for the social distinctions as for the houses of the town where Miss Boardman was a caseworker for the Red Cross through the weeks of reconstruction. She has pieced together the stories which were told her to show the reactions of a community that suddenly found itself an object of social work. "So far as it goes," she writes, "my story is quite true."

WHEN the tornado struck Murphysboro I was at a meeting of the Ladies' Auxiliary, up in the Lodge Hall. The sky had clouded over and looked threatening, and some of the ladies wanted to go home. We were talking about it when there came suddenly a great noise, like a terrible thunder-clap—and then the wind. The floor heaved up and down like a wave and the windows went out with a crash. We crowded down the stairway, scared and screaming. I was the last to go and as I turned to shut the door it was picked up by the wind and carried away. The roof and the top of the building were gone and I looked up into the sky, where a great whirling mass of things was all I could see. Houses were flying through the air like birds. I was trying to pray, shaking and hanging on to someone, I don't know who, but I kept on saying, "Houses like birds!"—like it was a prayer.

They say it lasted a minute and a half in that part of town. I couldn't say, but all at once we were out of the building and looking at a strange place. Houses that had stood there safe and solid two minutes before were gone. There was no sign of any street. Wreckage was everywhere, pieces of houses, bricks, timbers, furniture, baby carriages and Ford cars, telegraph poles and wires. There were no land-marks and no way to tell any direction. I kept saying over and over, Where is the Logan School? Where is the Logan School? but nobody listened or answered. Everybody else was crazy just like me, but finally somebody pointed and I started in that direction. My Mary Louise was just seven years old, and so afraid of storms. I couldn't think of anything else, not even Rob, as I climbed over things and picked my way through that awful waste. I stepped over a woman lying there and looked down and thought—Why, that's Margaret White! But all my mind was on Mary Louise and I didn't stop, and even forgot it right away. I didn't remember it for weeks after, and now I can't forget it. Nights it is terrible, remembering how I stepped over my best friend and didn't stop.

There is a sort of blank after that. Then I was at the wreck of the Logan School, digging in the bricks and mortar. My hands were bleeding and someone was shaking me and saying, "Mrs. Carter! Mrs. Carter! Mary Louise is safe!" I understood at last, and they told me she was over at Dr. Reiser's house and showed me the way. I found her there, safe and hardly hurt at all, only scared. The house was full of people that were hurt terribly, but I'm ashamed to say I didn't even see them. I just held tight to Mary Louise. Then Rob came running in, panting, and white as a ghost.

We were all just weak and trembling but of course we had to pull ourselves together and help with the rescue work. Dead and injured people were being carried out of the wreckage and there was no place to take them to. Those big empty lots on Grace street were full of people and the dead were laid there right on the ground in the rain. There wasn't anything else to do. Rob went off to fight the fire that had broken out, and I put Mary Louise to bed on the floor and helped bandage and take care of the injured. That was a night of terror. I never thought I could get so used to seeing blood. People hunting for their relatives came running in with an awful look on their faces, and hurried off again. We could hear the screams of trapped people afraid of fire. The water mains were broken and there was no hope of stopping the blaze. The best they could do was to get out the people and maybe save some of their furniture and things. A high wind was blowing and that spread the fire worse.

In the morning relief workers that had come from outside brought around pots of coffee and bread. We hadn't thought of food, but it took some of the strangeness away and after we had eaten we could go on working. It wasn't long before the state trucks had come and tents were set up and cots and blankets given out. The Red Cross relief station was established in the Elks Hall. The sick were taken to hospitals and the well were given food and shelter.

Rob and I took Mary Louise to my sister's in Carbondale the next day. Carbondale was full of folks that had come over from Murphysboro. We stayed a week and everyone was just lovely to us. But it seemed wrong for us to be away from home. Rob went back daytimes on the Interurban to tend to the store, and as soon as he could he got a place cleared on our lot and built a little one-room shack of salvaged lumber. He painted it up real nice and put in cots from the Red Cross and an oil stove and things so we could come back home to live. Other people were doing the same thing and a good many were living in tents and box-cars.

Everything was topsy-turvy. People who had always had plenty didn't know where their next meal was com-

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ing from. What with the Jackson Club and the Mayor's Fund and all the lodges and churches there was a lot of relief given out. Almost right away the Red Cross was in charge and we heard they were going to rebuild the town. Alfa Jackson came in one day with news that three million dollars had been collected to replace losses and that everything would be put back just as it was before. But Bert Gorman, who'd been working with the Emergency Committee in the M. E. Church said it wasn't true, that everyone would have to do the best he could for himself. Someone else said business losses would be restored, and another one, no, only what people had to have right away and that the money would be spent caring for the injured. The Red Cross had a meeting to explain what was to be done, and we all went. The speech seemed as clear as day at the time, but talking it over afterwards everybody seemed to remember it different, and the rumors were as bad as ever.

Pretty soon the Red Cross ladies began to go around town investigating losses. I kept thinking one would come to see us about ours, but for a long time no one did. They said they would take care of widows and orphans first, and, sure enough, it wasn't long before Mrs. Shaw had her lot cleared and a cute little cottage being built. She was the first one on Fifteenth Street to get her house up and everybody went to see her, and hear about her Red Cross award. They gave her twenty-one hundred dollars to build her house and two hundred and fifty for furniture and seventy-five for clothes. That seemed pretty fine to us. She was building five rooms and planning on having a roomer or maybe two. Her oldest girl will be through school next year and going to work, likely in the shoe factory.

The rest of us began figuring up what we could count on getting. Jim and Mollie Riggs who lost a big seven room house and had three children to take care of said they expected three or four thousand dollars to build a house. They had a contractor make them an estimate of what it would cost to put up the same size house they lost. Of course we all knew his house wasn't worth so much for all it was roomy and comfortable. Jim, being a carpenter, had built on to it himself and fixed it up. He was working for Sawyer, that contractor from Carbondale, that came in right after the storm, and they put their heads together and fixed up a good estimate and handed it in to the Red Cross. We all waited kind of eager to hear, but for two weeks there wasn't a word. Then one day Jim and Mollie got a card telling them to come to Headquarters. So they went down together. In a couple of hours they came back, and I saw them go past looking sober and not talking. When Rob came home at noon he said they hadn't got a cent. The Red Cross people said they could take care of themselves and didn't need help.

It did seem hard, when you thought of what they'd lost —house and furniture and clothes for a family of five. When I went to see them in their tent and saw the children looking so shabby, and the crowded up little place they were living in, full of flies and mosquitoes, and remembered how nice they'd always had things—well, I thought it was plain cheating. The money was sent in to help the storm sufferers, and they were sufferers all right. They were mad and I didn't blame them. To lose a nice house and all and not get a cent, and right across the street there was Mrs. Shaw with her nice new house, neat as a pin. They scolded a lot and said they would write to Washington about it.

I noticed Rob didn't have much to say about it and that surprised me for he was always a great one for justice and fair play. After a while, when I was saying how hard it was on them and all, he said, "Well, the insurance money will help a lot." That was the first I knew about their getting any insurance. But Rob said, "Yes, they got twenty-five hundred on their house and five hundred on their furniture—besides the three hundred the Masons gave them." "Well," I said, "Jim can't put back the house he had for that."

"I don't know," he said, "but look what he's making now. With all the building going on he's getting more money than he ever dreamed of. I guess it won't kill him to carry a loan for a while in the Building and Loan, like the rest of us."

That was right, I remembered how he always bragged about owning his house clear, while the rest of us were making our monthly payments. It was true, too, that he had the best job now he ever had. I stopped feeling so sorry for Mollie then.

BUT the next thing we heard was that the Hugh Rutherfords had got twenty-six hundred dollars from the Red Cross. That staggered us. Even Rob thought it didn't seem right. Mr. Rutherford owned the big white house in the next block to the Baptist Church. He worked in the M. and O. offices, and got three hundred a month—more than anyone on our street. His oldest daughter was living out West somewhere for her health and his second girl was going to Normal School in Carbondale. He had a boy in High School, most through. They were nice people, but seemed like they felt themselves better than other folks. I don't know. They worked hard to get a Carnegie Library in town and when it was voted down, account of taxes, they were disgusted. Seemed like they had to have books, so they subscribed to a library in St. Louis and got books by mail. Most folks thought lodge dues were enough to spend for intellectual enjoyment. Anyway, we all thought they were well-fixed. There was talk about graft and pull. Mrs. Rutherford was related to Dr. Quinn that was on the Red Cross Committee. No one had thought of that, for he had never liked Hugh Rutherford, but maybe it's natural for kinfolks to stand by each other. When I met one of the Red Cross ladies I asked her to tell me how it was that the Rutherfords got help when the Riggses didn't. She said she couldn't explain it, they weren't allowed to give out confidential information. But she said if we knew the circumstances, we would all agree that it was fair. She said lots of people had heavy burdens the public didn't know about. I wasn't so sure about that. But I noticed Mr. Rutherford was pretty sober looking and they said Mary had decided not to go back to Normal and was going to teach in the country next year. Maybe things weren't so easy for them as we thought.

ROB and I about figured we could get along without help. The store was doing well. The roof of the building was taken off, but the floor above Rob's was undamaged and his stock wasn't hurt a bit. By selling our electric light bonds and taking out two thousand from the Building and Loan we could build us a house and get furni-

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ture to get along. We had just got our last loan paid off and here we had to start all over with another. Our insurance was only fire and the house was blown away, so we didn't collect. We knew we had to begin saving all over again and doing without things like when we were first married. I couldn't help hoping, though, that we'd get some help, and I know Rob did, too, for all he kept still about it.

When our Red Cross worker came around I answered all her questions as well as I could, though some of them seemed pretty far-fetched. I didn't see why they had to know about that grocery bill I let run so long last winter. But I just told her everything and gave the preacher and Dr. Crabb for references. I didn't hear anything for so long, I guessed we had been refused, when one day our card came, asking us to call at Headquarters. I made Rob go with me. We went in to the outside room where we gave our names to Lillian Gardner—she had a desk there and gave us our numbers. It seemed good to have someone we knew to tell us what to do and we'd known Lillian ever since she was a baby. I was proud to see her there, so smart and capable, answering people's questions and taking their names and explaining things. We had to wait quite a while before our turn came and we were taken back to where the lady was who sent our card. She told us what had been decided. Just like we thought, they felt we were able to carry a loan and rebuild our house ourselves. But they had voted us three hundred dollars for furniture and seventy-five for clothing. Well, we had kind of hoped for more, but we knew we could manage, and it was a help. It seemed good to have it settled and know just what we could count on.

As we were going home we kept meeting people and they all asked us about our award. We told them what it was and showed our card. Not so long after that we heard they were talking about us having got too much. Rob's cousin Sam Dawson, treated us pretty frosty and his wife told Nell Lee they thought Rob had influenced the committee against them and had used a pull to get a big award. It was going around that we had got thirteen hundred dollars and that our house was going to be built for us. Our carpenters started work soon after that and then people were surer than ever that we'd got more than we told. Everybody was curious about other folk's awards and hearing about them seemed to make them greedy and envious. I know when I heard about the Coatses, I thought we might have done as well as they did. But I just had to look at Mary Louise playing around to feel thankful it was just our house we lost.

SOMETHING I can't explain was happening to us. Right after the storm we were just a lot of people who'd been hurt, helping each other. Those who had houses left just opened the doors and the others went in. There wasn't any owning things. Whatever the tornado left, belonged to those that needed it. Then nothing seemed important but people, friends and enemies were alike—no one saw any difference. For a long time it was like that. The change came so gradual I couldn't say when it was. But as soon as the hurt and suffering were taken care of, as we stopped worrying about our neighbors, we began thinking about ourselves. The more we thought about ourselves the harder life seemed for us and the more we worried about the future Thinking hard about ourselves made it seem to each of us that his loss was the worst of all. We got suspicious and hating. A lot of money had been sent in for the storm sufferers and everyone wanted to grab all he could. No one seemed satisfied. And envy! I never knew so much envy.

Houses were going up now almost over night. From upstairs in the Baptist Parsonage one day I looked out across North Fourteenth toward the railroad, and it gave me a turn to see the blocks of new houses out there. It was like another town. And before long our street was the same way. Folks that had gone away right after the storm and were just coming back, couldn't find their way. "What street is this?" they'd say, about the place they'd lived all their lives. A new town was set down where Murphysboro used to be.

They say the Red Cross is going away soon. They say all the money's been apportioned and there's nothing more to do. I'm not believing what I hear—but I wonder. Number 10 Mine is running two days a week now and liable to close down any time. The mines around here are all worked out. I hear the M. and O. shops are going to take back half their men when they finish building. What will the other half do? When the re-building and the clean-up work is finished, what are we going to do?

HELEN M. BOARDMAN

Family vs. Institution

ACCORDING to my experience, the earlier the age the greater the undesirability of handling children in mass. While it is often difficult to get exact figures, there is a heavy mortality and morbidity in most institutions caring for babies. It is of comparatively recent date that any really intelligent investigation of this problem has been attempted.

Mortality in Institutions

The information given in the reports of infants' institutions is usually meager and unsatisfactory. In 1914 the then American Association for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality attempted a study of this question. In their review the New York State Department of Charities is quoted as presenting the statistics from 1909 to 1913 of eleven institutions in the State in which the death rate for babies under two years, during this period, based on the total number of children cared for, varied in the different institutions from 183 to 576 per 1,000, with an average mortality rate for the eleven of 422.5 per 1,000. During these same years the death rate for children under two years, based on the estimated population for the state at that age, was 87.4 per 1,000 or about one-fifth of that in institutions. Again, in studying a series of 1,738 institutional infants admitted at various ages under one year, 22.7 per cent of all admitted died before completing the first month of residence, and 34.9 per cent before completing the second month. Including all deaths, 44.3 per cent occurred in less than one month after admission, and 68.7 per cent in less than two months.

The reports of the New York State Board of Charities for the last few years show that a little over 50 per cent of the babies under one year in institutions are discharged by death. This does not include deaths in regular hospitals for infants. The amount of illness is not stated in these reports.

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In recent years, a number of the institutions housing infants have been making great efforts to reduce their mortality, with uncertain and varying success. This has led to the query whether, after all, with improved conditions and greater care, the institution cannot justify its existence. Doctor Alfred F. Hess made one of the best pleas for the institution nearly ten years ago. (Archives of Pediatrics, February, 1916). After quoting the high mortality in many institutions, in a fair way, he declares:

> If the system is at fault then as Chapin says, "the infant asylum must go." If, however, the system is capable of being satisfactorily administered, then what is needed is not the demolition but the re-organization of the asylum.

He then gives the mortality rate of the Hebrew Home for Infants during a five year period as 16.3 per cent under one year, and 8 per cent between one and two years. His conclusions are as follows:

> Infants, and by infants we refer to babies under the age of two years, can be reared with success in institutions. . . . It is not the infants, but on the contrary the children over two years of age who do not thrive in institutions and suffer from this environment. They need the home, they need the fondling, they are stunted mentally by being herded together and never knowing the mother's care. Children of this age should not be brought up in the wards, where their individuality is trampled upon and blighted. They do better when boarded out because they are of an age to respond to the benefits of family life, and are beyond the age when questions of diet and of minor infections play the important role which they do during infancy.

Let us take this institution for babies as a model. Every effort is there made to do away with the dangers that go with mass treatment, with a resultant mortality that is among the lowest on record for this kind of work. It may be noted in passing that this institution is operating with a class of infants who show great virility and vitality. The infant mortality among the poorest Hebrews in New York is lower than that of other classes of similar grade.

In studying the effect of the institution on child life, however, something besides mortality must be considered. The general physical condition of the children, the extent of morbidity, the spread of infection and the mental and moral condition of the inmates before and after discharge must all be taken into consideration.

Very little accurate study has been made as to what effect the institution has upon the mental development of children. Three years ago the Bureau of Jewish Social Research undertook a careful and exhaustive study of this subject. It was made in connection with the children of the Hebrew Home for Infants, the Hebrew Orphan Asylum, and the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society, the first an institution for infants, the two latter for older children. In a study of mental development as determined by school grade among 311 children that had been at one time or another under the care of the Hebrew Home for Infants it was found that about 20 per cent were retarded three terms or more in school. Against this, it was found that among the children of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum and the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society who had not previously been under the care of the Hebrew Home for Infants only about 12 per cent were retarded three terms or more.

Another study was made of the intelligence quotient of 225 children of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum and 51 children from the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society in connection with previous institutional experience, some having been placed from a boarding-out bureau and some from the Hebrew Home for Infants. In the children of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum with no previous institutional experience there were 33.7 per cent with an I. Q. under 90 and 65.8 per cent with an I. Q. over 90. Of those who previously had had a boarding-out record there were 42.5 per cent with an I. Q. under 90 and 57.3 per cent with an I. Q. over 90. Among the children who had previously been cared for in the Hebrew Home for Infants there were 62.4 per cent with an I. Q. under 90 and only 37.3 per cent with an I. Q. over 90. Among the children of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society who had no previous institutional record, there were but 30.7 per cent with an I. Q. under 90 and 68.8 per cent with an I. Q. over 90.

While the numbers concerned in this investigation are limited, they certainly show a distinct trend. There has never been as careful and exhaustive study, as this of the Bureau of Jewish Social Research. As far as its findings go, they show that a longer residence in an asylum for infants may have an effect on the later mental life. If such a result is noted in a model institution, what can be the effect produced by the large majority of institutions for infants that are decidedly substandard?

From the standpoint of biology and psychology it is interesting to note what might be expected. While at birth the brain is only slightly developed, it undergoes a very rapid evolution during the first few years of life. Strong impressions may be made at a very early age and are apt to be lasting. The mental development of the child must be carefully watched from the beginning. It may also be noted that the very young infant craves and responds to affection, which seems to have a stimulating effect, particularly when there is drooping and lack of vitality. That close human observer Jane Addams, with sympathetic vision, puts it thus,

> We are told that the will to live is aroused in each baby by his mother's irresistible desire to play with him, the physiological value of joy that a child is born, and that the high death-rate in institutions is increased by the discontented babies whom no one persuades into living.

Such persuasion to life runs all through nature. This is one of the reasons why the young thrive best under individual care and attention. We have here a biologic law; all animals respond to affection. Dog fanciers have found that puppies do not do well when many are collected in one place. Even in the lower reaches of life this seems to hold true. In a remarkable communication to the writer, Dr. Henry H. Donaldson of the Wistar Institute of Anatomy and Biology, Philadelphia, relates his observations on albino rats. "In the case of growing rats, when the caretaker is changed in the middle of an experiment, the rats fail to grow, sometimes even losing weight. They have received the same food at the same time and theoretically the same care. But they respond to the change." It was also found that by assigning a caretaker to play with rats and render them gentle and fearless a subsequent operation gave the best results. Nature has traveled a very long road from rat to baby but the observation of Jane Addams seems to apply to both although with highly varying degrees of power.

In a recent article by Dr. J. R. Thompson (The Survey, September 15, 1925) the following sentence occurs in italics,

> Infants under one year of age receiving hospital type of care in an institution receive better medical supervision, better nursing care, better dietetic watchfulness and better mental hygiene than infants in the homes of even the well-to-do.

To support this astonishing statement it is mentioned that in 1920 the infant death rate in Cleveland was 86 per thou-

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sand while in his institution, St. Ann's, it was 16 per thousand. There is little of statistical detail of value in the article to throw further light on these figures. Nothing is stated as to the ages of the babies, how long they remain, the conditions of breast feeding, their condition at entrance and discharge, the number of cross infections and other similar data. If the conclusions of Dr. Thompson are correct, it is up to the physicians dealing with infants to try and remove their charges from family and home and collect them in large caravansaries where even "the well-to-do" can have the benefit of the mass treatment he has found so beneficial.

Most workers in this field, however, have found that carefully regulated boarding out is the best method of handling abandoned babies. In 1902 the writer started the Speedwell Society the method of which consists in boarding out babies in carefully supervised units. In each unit there is a salaried doctor and nurse with a committee of women who are well known in the community and who exercise general oversight of the work. Uniform histories on a card system are kept so that the conditions and results of the undertaking may be known. The visits of the doctor and nurse insure proper medical and hygienic treatment. In these and other ways an earnest effort is made to conserve the benefits and eliminate the dangers of boarding out. The work, in short, is done along the lines of family life with individual supervision instead of those of the collective life with institutional methods. A health propaganda is carried out among the families who take the babies. By raising the standard of living in the homes, by means of board paid and hygiene taught, and by the visits of the women's committee we aim at a broad social result.

There are now four units in operation, and in the annual reports the statistical results are condensed into tables, of which the following are examples:

1924

MORRISTOWN UNIT

	In Care of Unit	Discharged Improved	Discharged Unimproved	Died	In Our Care Dec. 31, 1924
Under 6 months.....	31	21	7	1	2
6 to 12 months	16	11	0	1	4
12 to 18 months.....	8	6	0	0	2
18 months to 2 yrs....	18	12	1	1	4
2 to 5 years	76	64	2	0	10
Over 5 years	33	31	0	0	2
	182	145	10	3	24

No contagion during the year.
Daily per capita cost, $1.55.

YONKERS UNIT

	Admitted	Discharged Improved	Discharged Unimproved	Died	Remaining
Under 6 months	39	32	4	0	3
6 to 12 months	20	16	0	0	4
12 to 18 months	15	11	0	0	4
18 months to 2 yrs...	12	9	0	0	3
2 to 5 years	28	23	0	0	5
Over 5 years	2	1	0	0	1
	116	92	4	0	20

2 cases whooping cough.
Daily per capita cost, $1.65.*
*Includes cost of new car.

Most of the babies were markedly under-nourished on admission. It is especially with atrophic babies that this form of boarding out has done well.

There are few studies that statistically show the comparative results of institutional care and boarding out, especially with babies of the atrophic type. One of the most illuminating comparisons is found in a report of studies made ten years ago by the Sage Foundation and Dr. Josephine Baker of the New York Department of Health. A number of babies were taken from the marasmus ward of the New York Foundling Hospital. This ward receives only the chronic cases of extreme atrophy that in spite of the best care have always ended in death. In boarding out a number of these babies, an extra bonus was given to selected women and a doctor and a nurse furnished for every ten babies. As a result there was an eventual mortality of 46 per cent. Thus nearly half of the babies were saved in the home who in spite of the greatest care were bound to die in the institution. This is the method employed by the Speedwell Society. Dr. R. Langley Porter of San Francisco in reporting the work of Dr. Rude stated that formerly in that city there was a mortality of 65 per cent among the institutional infants; after the babies were boarded out and closely followed up, the mortality dropped to 3 per cent.

A few years ago Dr. Miner C. Hill, acting on my suggestion, changed his method of handling a group of abandoned babies. The following paragraphs from the New York Medical Record, April 24, 1920, give the results of this interesting experiment:

> The Gramercy Nursery was opened March 1, 1916, as a temporary shelter for infants whose home care had become impossible through the illness or death of the mother (I might say in passing that this is an urgent problem deserving of more attention than is now given). This nursery had a capacity for seven babies, was well equipped and efficiently managed. During the year 1917 we handled 56 babies; the cost per child per day was nearly $3, and the average weekly gain was 4 ozs., and the mortality 4 per cent. The work was worth while, the results were good but the cost was excessive, owing to a constant overhead expense.
>
> After consultation with Dr. Chapin, the nursery was reorganized on a boarding-out plan similar to the work of the Speedwell Society.
>
> From October 1, 1917, to October 1, 1918—115 babies were cared for on the boarding-out plan at a cost of $1.29 per day with an average weekly gain of 5.15 ozs.; that is, in using the boarding-out plan, twice as many children were cared for with a greater weekly gain at less than half the per capita cost of institutional care.

While efficiency should never be sacrificed to economy, the rising costs of charitable work are causing grave misgivings to many observers. The expense of institutional care has grown by leaps and bounds. As a matter of fact, practically no institution knows exactly what are its real costs. The reason is that in estimating the per capita, no account is taken of the money locked up in the plant or the amount saved by remitted taxation which must be borne by the community at large. To find the real expense of operation these two items should always be estimated. It will then be found that institutional costs are greater than have ever been considered and much higher than boarding out.

While children above the age of infancy in institutions do not show a mortality higher than the average of the community, they yet are living under abnormal conditions. Under the auspices of the Jewish Bureau of Social Research,

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Professor Boas made a comparative study of the children in the institution group of the Hebrew Orphan Asylum and the boarding bureau children of the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society. He concluded that children in boarding homes showed a much better physical development than children in institutions, and that children who come from the better economic conditions, such as those attending the Ethical Culture School, were much better off physically than either the boarding bureau or the institutional children.

On the mental and moral side there is apt to be a lower standard in the institution than among children in the community at large. Here again it is difficult to get exact figures but we all know that the spread of evil habits and associations can occur very easily under institutional auspices. Thomas Mott Osborne has said that an undue proportion of his prison wards had their early training in institutions. Governor Alfred E. Smith at a recent meeting of the Child Welfare Committee of America stated that it was a significant fact that most of the applications for executive clemency could be traced to those who had been committed to an institution.

The magnitude and importance of the problems raised by abandoned children have not been sufficiently realized. In New York state alone over 30,000 dependent children are being housed and trained in institutions. Are these little lives being warped by unnatural surroundings? Shall they later become assets or liabilities to the community? There are times when it is difficult to avoid placing children in institutions, but in such cases the stay should be as short as possible and, as the cottage plan does away with some of the evils, it should be the one of choice.

Children are brought into the world singly and not in droves and their physical, mental and moral health should be conserved in the family unit. If any family is hopelessly broken, another family should be educated and paid to take on the burden of the children. If some of the money and energy that is devoted to building and operating large institutions could be deflected into constructive work in keeping families intact or furnishing substitute homes, the results would be most beneficial. The institution as a stop gap represents a failure along the normal lines that development should take place in child life. This truth must be spread abroad in the hope that wealthy and well-meaning people will lose the common obsession of endowing asylums.

Is the family or the institution best suited to conserve the child as a valuable asset? To ask such a question is to answer it in favor of the family. In the past much unselfish work has been done in institutions and there is no reason for trying summarily to close them all. But their future work should lie in the direction of clearing houses or centers where the dependent child may be studied and classified as to the direction of future effort. In the future let the family and home be stressed while institutions take a secondary and retiring place.

HENRY DWIGHT CHAPIN, M.D.

Those interested in the various phases of this subject are referred to the writer's following articles:

A Plan of Dealing with Atrophic Infants and Children. Arch. of Pediatrics, July, 1908.
The proper Management of Foundlings and Neglected Infants. New York Med. Redford, Feb. 18, 1911.
Are Institutions for Infants Necessary? Jour. Am. Med. Ass'n, Jan. 2, 1915.
A Plea for Accurate Statistics in Infants' Institutions. Arch. of Pediatrics, October 1915.
A Scheme of State Control for Dependent Infants. N. Y. Med. Record, June 17, 1916.
Systematized Boarding Out Versus Institutional Care for Infants and Young Children. N. Y. Med. Journal, June 2, 1917.
The Speedwell Plan of Child Saving in Theory and Practice. The Survey, October 26, 1918.
Problems of Boarding Out with an Attempted Solution. N. Y. Med. Record, April 24, 1920.
Heredity and Child Culture. E. P. Dutton & Co., 1922. New York.

Shall We Buck History?

"ARE Ex-Soldiers People?", in the November 15 number of The Survey, precipitates a question of growing importance in social work. Rather curiously it raises this question so that the issues can be set out in the most clear cut way.

It may be hopelessly old fashioned to refer to such conditions as poverty and dependency, especially under these names, but it may be stated with some degree of confidence that in the field of social work they still play a leading role as indicators of the situations where the community must step in to help individuals and families. In trying to understand these situations it has been necessary in the past to analyze the many contributing factors, in a country with rich natural resources—premature death, sickness, industrial accident, unemployment, mental defect, and so on. In this list war takes a place near the top.

Isolating the Causes of Need

As we have isolated these factors we have been able in many instances to develop preventive and modifying agencies, the public health movement, workmen's compensation, widows' pensions, and the rest. For meeting the situation of soldiers and sailors and their families we conceived the plans of allotment, allowance, insurance, hospital services, compensation and Red Cross Home Service. In the American Red Cross we built up the greatest voluntary organization for supplementing and aiding in the accomplishment of these services which this, and possibly any other country, has ever developed. In other words, here we have made a more thoroughgoing attempt to isolate one of these factors and to give it adequate attention than has ever been made in the history of the world, and we have succeeded to an amazing degree. We have recognized the national character of this problem and we have dealt with it on a nation-wide basis. One's imagination can hardly conjure up a picture of the aftermath of the war without these great measures of social reconstruction.

Now the war has been over for seven years. Some, but not all, of the strong war emotions have spent themselves. As long, however, as there are disabled men whose troubles can be traced directly to their war service, can we and should we turn them back to agencies ministering to people whose troubles arise from other forces within themselves and within society? Should we return them to the general grist of cases where there are family welfare societies and thus risk the danger of less adequate handling of this one problem even though it may be reduced in size? And do we favor the further complication of the task of the family agencies as they now attempt to cope with some of the community's other problems? And is it not a good plan to continue to set out this item of cost of war itself?

This brings us to the general question which confronts social work now. We all are fully aware that certain forms of social service make a particularly popular appeal. The distress of widows, orphans, soldiers, the sick and the aged is fully accepted by the man on the street as a matter which calls for action from *him*. These are age-old problems in society.

Everywhere it is far easier to move people by appeals based upon these primitive and elemental forms of distress than by appeals for people harassed by unemployment,

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mental incapacities of various kinds and delinquencies of all sorts including desertion, non-support and illegitimacy, which lie so close to dependency. It requires a more cultivated form of sympathy to respond when these issues are a part of the problem.

Sobs or Science?

And here we approach the horns of a dilemma for private philanthropy, especially when it seeks to line up the man on the street. Agencies which wish to make a wide appeal must do one of two things. Either they must hang on to some services for the widow, the orphan, the soldier, the sick and the aged, or they must educate their public to respond to less obvious forms of distress. I am afraid that organized private initiative is to be in large measure deprived of a real opportunity to operate in the relief of these primitive forms of distress. With the government and the Red Cross taking care of disabled service men, with workmen's compensation, with the mothers' aid movement for widows and orphans, with old age pensions, with the prevention of disease through public effort and the provision of public care of the mentally diseased, the tuberculous and the chronically ill—to say nothing of health and other forms of social insurance—the field of the private agencies becomes more and more circumscribed in its material for easy money raising, though not in its opportunity for service, because misery and trouble enough exist in other forms to keep them, and many more, busy twenty-four hours a day.

At the present time we still have a great deal of social work which lumps together a hodge-podge of social problems and then flies one of these well-known banners of distress which make wholesale money raising simple. It is easy to see how a chest executive will instinctively gravitate toward any plan which will bring back into his fold some of those agencies which have the dollar pulling power. And what life savers they are to the publicity staff! It would seem, however, that in attempting to get these functions a chest management is running counter both to the historical trend in these matters and to the logic of the situation as well. Those services which have the appeal to the elemental feelings are bound to be the first to be taken over by the community as a whole because it can so readily understand them. It has been an orthodox principle of social engineering, until very recently at least, that one of the most important functions of private philanthropy is the education of the public to see in the less obvious forms of human distress the occasion for help and assistance.

The Role of the Community Chest

From the long time point of view, is it not far more important to analyze the forces, activities and costs of particular aspects of the problems of poverty and dependency and to set in motion the preventive measures which such an analysis makes possible than it is to get a smoothly running machine for raising money? Do we want a type of community chest which raises money for a conglomerate mass of activities related to a miscellaneous collection of local, state, and national problems, and which appeals to the general public for support on the basis of sentimentality and unquestioning confidence in the names of the people who sponsor it?

While it would be foolish even to imply that community chests have not already accomplished much good in many communities, it may not be out of order to suggest that there lies a rich field of study before the community chest movement of its place in the education of the community not only to give generously but to give intelligently and in a way that will build a social machinery, both public and private, which rests upon solid foundations of community understanding, historical development and well conceived and generally accepted plans for the future.

NEVA R. DEARDORFF

"THE JUVENILE COURT of the future will be what grown up men and women of today are to the children of yesterday," said Judge Ben B. Lindsey in his paper on that subject read before the National Conference and published in the proceedings of the National Probation Association. "We shall only recognize the kinship of the two as the modern locomotive, aeroplane, or automobile recognizes its beginning in the fussy, confused, little machines which were, after all, their babyhood. This new institution I would prefer to call a Court of Human Relations. It will have a two-fold aspect, that which relates to its judicial powers and that which relates to its administrative powers. These powers will be exercised primarily with reference to the rights of childhood, and incidentally to the rights of parents, and above all things, to the rights of the state itself because the state is the child and the child is the state. . . . In my own dreams I see a great building, fashioned by artists from stone and marble, that some day shall grace our civic center here in Denver. I think it might be called the Children's Building, indicating the adoration of all the state's wise men for the child. Here we shall have gathered together all the director generals of the agencies of the state which now contribute to the child's welfare. It shall be at once the symbol and the directing place of the state's super-parenthood."

The Child Welfare League of America recognizes the value of free discussion of such subjects [as institutional or home care]. At the six regional conferences which it holds each year in different parts of the United States it is customary to provide for round table or forum discussions on the question: "With good foster home care available, both boarding and free, and good institutional care, what children should go to institutions?" But the League's executive committee of 24 members, coming from 14 states and 2 Canadian provinces, has never made the distinctions insisted upon by Dr. Reeder or Dr. Langer [in The Survey]. One reason for this may lie in the fact that the membership of the Child Welfare League of America includes institutions as well as child placing agencies, many of which use both types of care. But it is of even greater significance that the most progressive among them seem less and less interested in comparing the merits of institutional and foster home care as such. In making daily decisions as to the care needed by the individual child they increasingly rely upon the findings of case workers and the deliberations of case conferences. Their executives and governing boards are raising the standards of both types of care so that their functions may coordinate and thus more completely serve the community and its dependent and neglected children.—*From the Information Exchange of the Child Welfare League of America, November* 15, 1925.

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EDUCATION

New Roads to Education

THE same fierce hunger for knowledge that in the old days drove many students into foreign universities still exists in Russia. It has survived the blundering years that succeeded the revolution with their grandiose schemes for the immediate liquidation of illiteracy and the giving of free education to forty million children. It still survives, in spite of previous failures, in spite of great difficulties which include sixty languages with nearly a dozen alphabets not to mention several analphabetic groups, and it is driving the Russian people into what they call "the new roads to education."

The evolution of an adequate educational plan is being guided by non-partisan scientists, including the best non-communist as well as communist authorities; teachers, psychologists, physicians, librarians, museum curators and other specialists and technicians of all kinds. In looking over the wide range of the new educational program and in judging the results of the countless instances in which it is being tried, modified, reorganized and extended, no one factor is so significant or so impressive as the scientific and experimental attitude of mind of large numbers of Russian educators.

SO far, the leaders in the new education movement have remained open-mindedly and idealistically intent upon a program of genuine progress and growth. That is, they have not persuaded themselves that their job consists in presenting a standardized ration of facts and skills to the largest possible number of children. In spite of the terrific drive for literacy, those in authority have never failed to realize that reading and writing are not enough. They know that they are, instead, dangerous weapons, unless accompanied by ability to recognize evidence, to think things out to a reasoned conclusion, to act accordingly, and to work, not merely individually, but with others, cooperatively, toward a common good.

This enlightened educational leadership is shown not only in the actual conduct of the schools for youth, for illiterates and semi-illiterates—but also in Sunday, holiday and factory classes; political schools, reading cabins, libraries, clubs of every kind; Peasants' Houses; agricultural and technical classes and propaganda; remarkable posters, newspapers with immense circulation, wall and radio-newspapers; and self-education propaganda. Especially is it visible in the remarkable socialization of museums, in the theaters, in moving pictures, and in all sorts of discussion groups. Never before anywhere have I seen such *creative* audiences.

RUSSIAN educational leaders neither sit back contendedly with the old, nor demand made-in-Russia new education. A detailed study is made of all foreign educational literature, and, apparently, nothing in German or in American pedagogy escapes their scrutiny. Take the story of the introduction of the Dalton plan for example. Just as soon as the enormous range of individual differences in pupil ability and background loomed up as an obstacle to efficient class room teaching, the Educational Section of the State Scientific Council, of which Kroupsky, Lenin's widow, is the chief, made a careful study of individualized instruction in Germany, in England, and in the United States. After much discussion, they decided upon the Dalton plan as best fitted to their needs. A translation of the essential portions of Miss Parkhurst's book was put in the hands of the faculities of secondary and higher schools for discussion. The result was that when, the following year, it was decided to try the experiment, there were a thousand schools ready and eager to begin.

Handicapped children are studied and served in relatively large numbers of educational experimental stations and schools. Testing of all kinds, already more or less usual, has become this year mandatory in the cities. Testing in Moscow and Leningrad is administered by experts and includes not only individual and group mental tests, but also detailed anthropometric measurements, detailed physical and psycho-neurological tests, together with such special tests as those of Schilling for morphological blood changes during physical exercise, changes in blood pressure, as well as changes in the rapidity of psychological reactions, and the like.

In general, the attitude toward problem children seems to be that they are psychiatric and neurological phenomena, to be studied and helped or cured—not merely punished, and, above all, not denied a right education. Moreover, practice keeps pace with theory, if one may judge from the eager happiness, the intelligent interest, the sanity of the children and the teachers in the Psychiatral Neurological Sanitarium, one of the experiment stations of Moscow's Pedological Institute, where I spent a hope-inspiring day.

Scientific theory and intelligent practice unite, too, in the equally important problem of educating normal children of superior ability. On the outskirts of Moscow is the Biological Station of the Young Naturalists, extremely well equipped both physically and in its teaching personnel. To its secondary school are admitted pupils from all parts of the city, provided that already they have shown interest and ability in natural science. Here, in addition to a high school education, they come into contact with well-trained men and women in their own chosen line of individual interest. Moreover, they are allowed to take an active, quasi-independent part in carrying on the work of the station, either in its experimental farms or in its well-equipped physical and meteorlogical laboratories.

It is no mean tribute to the quality of the teaching that, already, these students have become scientific enthusiasts, organizing active nature study circles in the elementary schools, and uniting them into a general group which has held several successful conventions.

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Another illustration of the quality of educational leadership is in remarkable "Programs," or curricula. The "complex"—more elaborate than our project—is subdivided into themes, so stated that it is fairly easy, even for little old ladies of the past—and they have their share of them among the teachers—to carry on effectively, learning with the children.

The background of the work in the elementary schools is the life of children; in secondary grades, an intensive study of the community in which they live, linking it up with larger and larger units, finally with the universe. There are three large complexes in each course: Nature, Work, and Human Relations in the elementary school; Nature, its resources and power, the Use of Natural Resources and Powers, and Public Life, in the secondary schools.

Each theme is worked out in the Program with enough detail to help but not to stultify the teacher. She is almost driven into growing with the children. For example, the first theme under Work in the first year of the rural school reads as follows:

Child's summer occupations: work and play. Summer occupations of the family.

Accustom the children to express fully in a natural way, their observations, impressions, etc. Free hand modelling and design from the subjects about which they talk. Addition and subtraction of the first ten numbers. For example, in comparing the number of people in the different family groups, their ages, etc.

Other themes under Work for the same trimester are Collection of Children's Crafts, summer, or later work for the class museum. "This should be made in connection with talks on summer occupations." Still other themes: Making the Child Acquainted with the School and School Work; Why Children Come to School? How Shall We Make Every One Happy in School? School Regulations; Inventories: pupils, furniture, school material in connection with class room order and decoration.

Reading in connection with posters.

Hygiene of the Home: cleaning; sweeping (windows open). Use brooms to correspond with the height of the child. Mopping the floor. Use of the toilet.

Health of the Child: taking and recording the height and weight of each child; measures of weight and length; halves, quarters. Reading of words and sentences in this connection.

Discussion and practice of ordinary hygienic habits—clean face, clean hands, clean finger nails; clean clothing; normal sitting posture.

Under Human Relations, some of the themes are: the household; school organization of work in the family. And then, loveliest of all, "Literacy: reading and other spiritual recreations in the family."

There are, of course, many other themes under the three complexes, making up this first trimester of school work.

Instead of an examination, there is an "exhibition," organized from the collections that they are continually making for the school museum, together with discussions of school work with the many visitors. The relationship between the school and community is always close. In urban communities, there are often hundreds, and sometimes thousands of visitors, during the school year. The exhibitions everywhere draw crowded houses.

WHILE the discussion of the Scopes trial was dragging across the pages of the Russian newspapers, several secondary teachers quite disingenuously called my attention to one of the themes of the fourth year of the secondary school, both for rural and urban communities:

Types of reproduction: sex and sexless plants and animals. Inheritance of some characteristics; struggle for existence; survival of the most adjustable. Artificial selection: domestic animals; cultivated plants. Comparative anatomy and physiology —man and the higher animals. Origin of man.

I countered, also disingenuously, by telling them of my experiences, thirty-five years ago, in beginning a course of a dozen or more lectures on evolution, illustrated with lantern slides and specimens, in connection with laboratory work in biology for normal school students. These lectures continue to the present day, without censure and without hindrance. The Russian teachers listened politely, but a bit incredulously, I am afraid. For, in spite of their national minorities—or perhaps because of them!—Russian educators cannot understand how there can be backwaters and shallows in the cultural life of a great state like ours.

RUSSIA has other methods for training teachers in service than the circulation of printed matter. Two further essentials are recognized: a chance for the spiritual and intellectual growth of the teacher in a different environment, and the imperative need for human sympathy in teacher guidance. Experimental Stations for the Study of Pedagogy, both in the city and in the country, with allied dormitories, where the cost of living is low, together with cheap transportation, have been organized to satisfy the first need. In vacation time, visiting teachers are given two courses daily, one in politics and the other in a "discipline," such as science, or anatomy, or hygiene, or psychology. The rest of the day, they are free to enjoy the country and farm life in the one place, or museums, historical collections, art galleries and the like in the other. Guidance and companionship are provided *ad lib.* The duration of the stay may be from ten days to a month.

This vacation experience counts chiefly for inspiration, and inspiration is not enough. Ideally, teacher training is continued during the winter. Actually, they are now engaged in learning how best to do it. For example, a hundred miles from Moscow, in a children's colony organized before the revolution, one of Russia's great teachers, Stanislaus Shatzky, meets the teachers from the nineteen villages round about every fortnight. They come for the day, and, at their leisure, they see in his schools, a masterly application of the Program. Following the observation there is a half day of discussion.

"What do you do with them, first?" I said.

"I ask them what they have seen, here, in the children, that will make it easy to educate them. What, that will make it difficult? Then the same questions in reference to the environment. Always the teachers have much to say and much to ask. Then I tell them on their return to their own village to make a little study of their children and their environment along the same line. This gives us abundant material for the next discussion."

Shatzky, whether singing, or reading aloud, or talking, or smiling, or teaching, is an artist. This may account for his optimistic belief that in a quarter of a century, with money enough, it will be relatively easy to create the force of a million teachers needed for the education of Russia's children.

For American educators there are certain signposts along Russia's new road to education which point out profitable lines of exploration.

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First, of course, there is that scientific, experimental attitude on the part of educational leaders which refuses to be prisoned within the confines of a rigid system, and which insists that a real plan of education is as varied and as fluid as life itself. This is the animating spirit of the whole program as I saw it and it is reflected in all the essential features of the plan. Next, there is the eagerness to study any hopeful new educational effort, to test it, and to adopt its valuable features. Third is the insistence that teaching is more than a definite trade technique, like cobbling or power machine operating. It has to do with human minds and souls and bodies, not passive mechanisms, and it is more important that a teacher have a rich, balanced personality and a deep sense of the integrity of the individual than that her mind be stored with encyclopedic facts and pedagogical maxims. Finally, any adequate scheme of education must include adults as well as children, and it must be deeply and solidly rooted in the life of the community.

Any country whose school leaders accept these factors as essential is indeed traveling "new roads to education."

LUCY L. W. WILSON

The Books Children Choose

WITH the cooperation of 36,750 children living in thirty-four cities scattered from Quincy, Massachusetts, to Santa Fe, New Mexico, the research department of the Winnetka (Illinois) Public Schools has prepared the first children's book list to be based, not on guess-work or upon the preferences of teachers and librarians, but upon the choices and the reading ability of the children themselves.

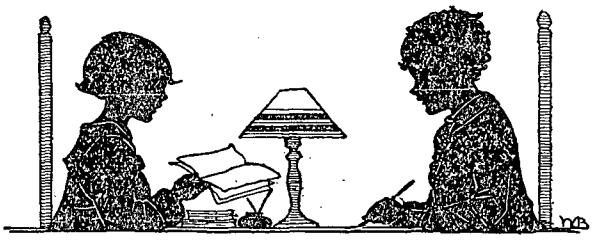
The study was made under the supervision of Carleton W. Washburne, superintendent of schools, and was financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York, through the American Library Association. The results are soon to be published by the American Library Association, Chicago, in a book, The Winnetka Graded Book List, with a full introduction.

As a basis for this "scientific investigation, . . . on a large scale to determine what books are being read and enjoyed by children of various ages and degrees of reading ability" ballots were sent to the 36,750 children who cooperated in the study. Each child filled out one of the ballots for each book he read during the year. On each ballot the teacher wrote the child's score as shown by the Stanford Silent Reading Test, decided upon as the best available criterion of reading ability.

More than 100,000 ballots were returned to the research department. Of these, 53,000 were filled out on 800 books, each of which had the 25 or more ballots necessary to bring it within the study. Boys filled out 22,000 of these, girls, 31,000. It was found, incidentally, that "besides having more ballots from girls than from boys . . . there seemed to be a tendency for girls to have a higher degree of reading ability. For example, in many cases 11 year old boys had a reading ability corresponding to sixth grade, while 11 year old girls had a reading ability corresponding to seventh . . ." Though some of the books on which the children balloted may have been recommended by parents or teachers, the research department believes that "the graded list of books resulting from the ballots . . . consists largely of books which these children selected freely."

Further light on the significance of the study comes from a paper read before the Illinois Library Association recently by Mabel Vogel, research assistant for the Winnetka Public Schools, who says:

To determine the general causes back of the selection of books by children a special study was made in public libraries and school libraries. Four members of the research staff questioned children as they were looking over books on the shelves . . . Out of 215 books picked from the shelves, 103 were taken and 112 rejected. . . . The majority were taken because of the subject matter. A large percentage were taken because of their appearance and a very few were taken because of recommendation . . . This study showed that . . . children had definite reasons for reading or choosing the books which they took . . . A 14 year old girl in eighth grade took The Dragon's Secret by Seaman. She said, "I like Seaman's books. They are full of mystery and not too deep. They are nice for girls." A 15 year old boy in eighth grade rejected a book called Pets for Pleasure and Profit. He said, "This book is too long. I have to read three books for credit and this one would take too long." A 12 year old boy in sixth grade took The Wolf Hunters. He looked at the pictures and said, "See there, that's grand! That's what I call a good book." An 8 year old girl in fourth grade took Wood and Water Babies. She said, "It is a big, big book. I like to read a book with many pages."



"Best" Books

The books that American children love best, according to the votes of 36,000 boys and girls, arranged in the order of their popularity, on the Winnetka Graded Book List:

FOURTH GRADE
- Grimm's Fairy Tales
- Child's Garden of Verses, Stevenson
- Little Black Sambo, Bannerman

FIFTH GRADE
- Pinocchio, Collodi
- Story of Dr. Dolittle, Lofting
- Little Lame Prince, Mulock-Craik

SIXTH GRADE
- Heidi, Spyri
- Robinson Crusoe, Defoe
- Blue Fairy Book, Lang

SEVENTH GRADE
- Adventures of Tom Sawyer, Twain
- Little Women, Alcott
- Hans Brinker, Dodge

EIGHTH GRADE
- Prince and the Pauper, Twain
- Wild Animals I Have Known, Seton
- Ivanhoe, Scott

NINTH GRADE
- Jim Davis, Masefield
- Two Years Before the Mast, Dana
- Bob, Son of Battle, Olivant

TENTH GRADE
- Three Musketeers, Dumas

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The published list will contain books chosen by children of third to tenth grade reading ability. The number of children reading each book, the per cent who liked it, the interest value given it and other statistical data are listed under each title.

It was found that chronological age as well as ability to read influenced a child's choice of books. Out of a group of books enjoyed by children of sixth grade reading ability, the average age of those who liked Cornelli and Golden Windows was 9; that of those who liked The Blue Bird and The Scotch Twins was 10; Heidi and Toby Tyler were enthusiastically read by 11 year olds, and The Dog of Flanders and Genevieve by those who were 12.

The help of a group of thirteen children's librarians named by the headquarters staff of the American Library Association was sought in passing upon the literary merit of the 800 books listed. Miss Vogel reports that

> out of the 800 books there were only 100 on which all our experts agreed. Out of these 100, only 35 were rated of unquestionable literary merit . . . For instance, Huckleberry Finn was considered of unquestionable literary merit by eight experts, valuable for the list although not of high literary quality by two, *not* recommended because of *low literary value* by one, while still another expert said it should not be recommended because it dealt with subjects unsuitable for children.

Because of this disagreement, a book had to receive the highest rating by at least three-fourths of the experts to be starred on the list, and given the lowest rating by three-fourths to be omitted. Of the 100 books omitted from the list on this basis, a sharp difference of opinion between the experts and the children is shown. The Bobbsey Twins, for instance, was read by 900 girls and enjoyed by 90 per cent of them, and the Tom Swift books were read with gusto by 500 children. Other books, enjoyed by a number of children but omitted from the list because the experts considered them to have low literary value or subject content, included The Circular Staircase, Baree, Freckles, Her Father's Daughter and The Hound of the Baskervilles.

Among the books starred for unquestionable literary merit are Aesop's Fables, Alice in Wonderland, Black Arrow, The Jungle Book, Story of Dr. Dolittle, Kidnapped, Child's Garden of Verses, and Adventures of Tom Sawyer. "It has been interesting to notice," Miss Vogel points out, "that a large number of these highly recommended books are found among the most popular from the children's standpoint. Fifty per cent of the starred books fall within the top 20 per cent of books which are most widely read and enjoyed."

Each book on the Winnetka list is annotated with the comment of some child who enjoyed it. "These comments," Miss Vogel explained, "were chosen by members of the research staff, who tried to get stimulating, typical and well-expressed comments as far as possible." For example:

> Peter and Wendy: "I like the book because there is so much fairyland in it. I also like it because Peter Pan was always so lively and never grew old."

Among the amusing comments received, Miss Vogel offers the following:

> Texan Star: (by an 11 year old boy, Mason City, Iowa) "I like this book because it suits my taste. I have a wild taste."
>
> East o' the Sun and West o' the Moon: (12 year old boy, Gary, Ind.) "I like this book because it is easy to understand what it means. In other words it is easy to read. For instance, if you start to read there are no words that will stop you reading. I like books of that sort."
>
> Evangeline: (14 year old boy, Quincy, Mass.) "It doesn't seem possible that a girl would walk so many miles for her beau when now a girl wouldn't walk one mile to see him."

One can feel only respect for the scholarship, research technique and patience that have made possible such a piece of work as this study. But it is because of its steady and understanding recognition of the right of children to a part in the direction of their own education that this book list will be of inestimable value to parents, teachers, librarians and children not only in aiding the choice of suitable and interesting books for boys and girls to read, but also, it is to be hoped, in suggesting a fresh viewpoint to anyone undertaking a study of educational problems.

Reading Score

Complete title of book.....

Author's full name.....

Publisher.....

Child's name..... Age..... Boy or Girl.....

School..... Grade..... Teacher.....

One of the best books I ever read	Too easy
A good book, I like it	Just about right
Not so very interesting	A little hard
I don't like it	Too hard

Write on the other side of this slip what you like best about this book, or why you like it.

THE BALLOT

Adult Education: What's Ahead?

SEVENTY-FIVE men and women, active in various fields included under the term "adult education," gathered at the Town Hall Club in New York on December 15, as guests of the Carnegie Corporation, to discuss plans "looking toward the formal organization of an Association for Adult Education." This was the first of four regional conferences suggested by the National Conference on Adult Education held in Cleveland in October (see The Survey, Dec. 1, p. 308). The importance of the conference, setting it apart from the meetings that fill New York hotels every day, was in its potential effect on one of two fields of education, both largely experimental, which are still unorganized. The "new schools" of elementary education are entirely independent of one another. They could not and should not be synthesized, for their possibility for usefulness lies in the fullest and most completely independent working out of their respective programs. The other free growth in education is the "adult education movement." So far, it has been quiet and spontaneous, in most cases a sort of side show run by an agency with an entirely different purpose, to meet some definite community need. Many educators feel that the time has come to correlate the various activities that make up this American adult education movement. Such action must necessarily result in helping, in diverting or in discouraging the movement itself.

Dean Russell of Teachers College presided at the New York gathering. Among the adult education agencies represented were: the Bryn Mawr College summer session for trade union representatives; People's Institute, New York; Brookings School of Business Administration, Washington University; Catholic Welfare Council, Washington,

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D. C.; National Y.M.C.A. and Y.W.C.A.; Baltimore Public Forum, Baltimore, Md.; Advisory Committee on Adult Education, Carnegie Corporation; Adult Education Department of the National Educational Association; The New School of Social Research; the Labor Temple School; American Library Association; Katonah Labor College, and Swarthmore Chautauqua Association.

What Can an Association Do?

A written "basis for discussion" was supplied by the executive committee of nine members, appointed at Cleveland. This "tentative program" was designed to clarify the basic subject of the gathering: "assuming that there should and will be an association, what concretely shall it do?"

The possibilities for activity suggested by the Committee were, in substance, these:

1. Shall the Association concentrate on headquarters work, such as publications; studies of problems in adult education; aid and advice to enterprises seeking it?
2. Shall the Association conduct conferences: an annual meeting with a program of distinguished speakers, and occasional group meetings?
3. Shall the Association publish a magazine? A series of bulletins? Reference and text books? Translations of foreign material?
4. Shall the Association conduct (a) enterprises for teacher training? (b) appointment bureaus for teachers in adult education? (c) lecture bureaus?
5. Shall the Association departmentalize? Shall it be strictly professional?
6. Are any or all of the following studies profitable for the Association? (a) Follow-up on students in adult education enterprises? (b) Community surveys? (c) The economics of adult education? (d) Conditions of admission to adult education classes—intelligence tests, etc.?

The plan of the conference was that of a Quaker meeting, where people rose and talked as the spirit moved them. Those who spoke seemed impelled by one of two motives: to describe the achievements of their own group in its particular program of adult education or, more or less gropingly, to arrive at some general purpose that could be ascribed to all adult education enterprises, including such otherwise unrelated agencies as evening high schools, trade union colleges, Y.M.C.A. courses, university extension work, classes in methods of carrying on mission study; chautauquas, museums, forums, radio talks, vocational training.

In the discussion of the general theme of adult education, two broadly divergent viewpoints became increasingly apparent as the conference progressed. The preponderance of opinion (at least as it was articulate) seemed to be that what adult education needs is to be rescued from its present isolation with regard to the "general educational system," and standardized as to content and methods. A few voices insisted, in differing terms, that adult education is something larger than syllabi, teaching technics, surveys and reports; that if it is to have any real value it must remain fluid and experimental.

The Role of Organization

One of the leaders of girls' club work in New York, for example, and a former college president, insisted that from their viewpoints the existing adult education agencies have nothing in common except the purely negative desire to do whatever no one else happens to be doing. But their challenge was not picked up.

An institute director opposed the idea of complex organization. "Departmentalizing is one of the very things we want to get away from," he pointed out. "If we just extend the existing machinery, we'll do harm. We don't need more machinery. We need to free the spirit of education." His remarks were greeted by an encouraging burst of applause and a moment of hopeful silence—then the discussion sagged back to the administrative details of the proposed Association.

In his introductory remarks, the chairman observed that "the emphasis of education has shifted from the teaching of definite subjects to the functioning of the individual in society." Later during the session, there was reference to the same theme from a different approach, when it was suggested that "The bond that unites us is the necessity of undoing the effects of our present standardized system of education. There are tremendous jobs involved in Americanization, vocational guidance, vocational training, extension courses, but the *real* job lies in making good the defects of our present system." Unfortunately, no one elaborated this stimulating suggestion, nor did the speaker himself make clear whether he meant merely puttying up the cracks in the present system or evolving a new program that has as its ideal the modification of society to permit of the greatest possible freedom for the individual, rather than the modification of the individual to fit a system.

But these suggestions seemed merely leaves on the current, accidental and unregarded. The main stream of discussion carried solid logs of which a national organization could be erected.

There were many earnest statements of how useful an Adult Education Association could be in "cooperating" with the work of various existing agencies, with the Adult Education Department of the National Education Association, for example; and with the League of Urban Universities, which it was pointed out with approval provides the *same* courses and the *same* diplomas for evening as for day colleges, and has been influential in putting this scheme of duplication into evening high schools. The possibilities of "furthering the work" of secondary and elementary schools and of chautauquas and night schools for foreigners were put forward. The reduction of illiteracy, trade training to make possible a better job, offering instruction in common school subjects to those who were forced to leave school early ("belated education") and, above all and before all, "training for American citizenship" seemed to be the generally accepted aims of adult education.

No one asked, "What *is* adult education?" No one attempted to detail its broader meanings; no one sketched a program of new and splendid possibilities such as animate the state-wide experiment in adult education in California. One daring speaker hinted that adult education might eventually mean in this country, as it has in Denmark, a fundamental modification of social structure. "In Denmark," this speaker observed, "They have had fifty years of adult education. It has made a difference in Denmark—a genuine, important difference. Denmark has attained real growth through adult education. Why, in Denmark it is impossible for one man to amass a huge fortune!" This observation was met with a tense and painful silence. After all, the Carnegie Corporation was the official host of the gathering. Denmark was not referred to again.

Later in the conference there was another reference to

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funds, when a delegate remarked, in substance, "I think any organization which is offered a subsidy should be very particular before accepting it to ascertain whether the funds are to be expended as the organization plans, or whether the donor is to dictate the manner in which the money is used." A discussion of text books for adult education was hastily resumed.

A professor of economics pointed out that anyone who seriously recommends adult education is apt to be labelled "a moron, a highbrow or a Bolshevik" and that what is most needed is to "sell the idea of adult education." Unfortunately, he did not elaborate the "idea of adult education" which should be placed on the market.

Many profitable lines of study for an Adult Education Association were advanced. The one most enthusiastically received was "a survey to determine what adult educational facilities the 'average community' should have to improve American citizenship."

A "chapter form of organization" was outlined, not in the sense of a fraternal body, but "strong local units" composed of "all those engaged in adult education work," to "act as a clearing house of information for local groups" and also as "a source of inspiration" through its meetings. "This," it was confidently affirmed, "would build up a strong national organization, like the League of Women Voters."

Late in the evening two resolutions were unanimously adopted, "expressing the sense of the meeting." The first recommended the formation of a National Association of Adult Education, at a national conference to be held following the regional conferences. The second directed the chair to appoint a committee of seven members, with possible alternates, to meet with similar committees from the other regional conferences, "to boil down the discussions of each conference" and "formulate a definite program."

Is the Movement Ready for Organization?

Is the adult education "movement" ready for a "definite program"? A sincere attempt was obviously made at the New York conference to obtain a free expression of opinion. However, the seminar method of procedure is rarely successful in so large a group. Its very freedom is a restraint, for it seems to call for brief, definite statements, and those whose ideas require more extended expression, prefer to remain inarticulate. A tentative outline and interpretation of adult education, so broad as to include the efforts of the very representative group of agencies included in the meeting, might have provided a spring board for a discussion that would have gone farther than more or less unrelated details of organization. The result of the meeting was not a sense of what a national association of adult education might and should mean, in accomplishment and in influence, but instead a rather dreary impression of the vast amount of tiresome detail which the machinery of any organization requires.

Perhaps it was the executive committee's natural preoccupation with organization problems, and their suggested basis of discussion looking toward the solution of such problems that created the sense of rigid limitation which seemed to hamper so many who tried to speak. As one delegate remarked in a rather wistful aside, "There's such a feeling of structure!"

This is, of course, an age of organization. In our modern society, unprogramed experiments, particularly when they suggest far reaching possibilities are not allowed to be wastefully inefficient. One of our most characteristic services to new experiments is to provide through established funds needed laboratories in which experiments can be more or less accurately observed. Varying degrees of "guidance, direction and cooperation" are often added to the necessary equipment. Two sorts of things may happen in laboratories. All kinds of new and important principles and applications may be discovered and made available for ordinary people's use. This happens with encouraging frequency under the stimulation of those great endowments which encourage men and women to explore new fields of science, to try and fail and try again in carrying on the line of investigation that seems to them hopeful. But there are also laboratories where, as in those of "cook book" chemistry in numerous public high schools and colleges, the result of each "experiment" is a definite and unexciting certainty before one begins, and the possibility of any new and significant contribution to individual or social knowledge is carefully eliminated.

Without a Program

The adult education movement in this country is a young and vigorous and not very well defined growth. It has perhaps made most impressive progress in California, where it is recognized as an important part of the state educational system. (See The Survey, November 15, p. 215.) The attitude of those most concerned in the California experiment is expressed in a remark made by Ethel Richardson, assistant to the state superintendent, at an educational conference in Pasadena in October: "When I undertook this job [director of adult education] I didn't know enough to make a program for my teachers. That was the luckiest thing that ever happened to adult education in California. Now I wouldn't tie my teachers to a program if I could—nor let anybody else." Smaller scale experiments are to be found at the Labor College at Katonah, New York, for example, the Workers' Education Bureau, the Bryn Mawr summer school, the rural and industrial work of the Y.W.C.A. These limited experiments do not constitute a complete program of adult education, but their number and their wide distribution are significant of an increasing need for a kind or a degree of education entirely outside the recognized system.

The president of the Carnegie Corporation is sufficiently far sighted to see that the adult education movement is "striking deep roots in all classes of society," and to view it as something "full of vitality and promise."

If the Carnegie Corporation carries out what seems to be its present intention to put behind a national adult education association the resources of its means and its influence, one of two important results will probably follow.

A rigid, directed, much-managed organization could all too obviously do for every part of the adult education movement that comes under its influence exactly what the chemistry "cook book" does for the class in the orthodox high school laboratory. It could discourage curiosity and self-reliance and the sense of liberty and instead of fostering genuine, fruitful experimentation and eager research, merely continue the more or less cut and dried routine of well established agencies. But on the other hand, there is the exciting possibility that the useful tool of the subsidy might be used so as to make education free, as science is here and there made free, to study and experiment and fail and keep trying, and finally create a new outlet for human energy that would result in richer, freer lives, in something that is in a new and more vital sense, public education. B. A. R.

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How Students Confer

IN reporting the recent student conference on the World Court at Princeton University, the newspapers have emphasized the fact that undergraduates evolved the idea and the organization of the gathering. The program, which included a debate on the World Court issue between Senator Lenroot and Clarence Darrow, and the formation of a National Students' Federation "to achieve a spirit of unity among students of the United States . . ., to develop intelligent student opinion on questions of national importance . . . to foster understanding among students of the world in furtherance of enduring world peace" have been widely reported; so has the seating of a delegate elected by the student body of his college and forbidden to attend by the president, and the regrettable attempt by Louisiana delegates to draw a "color line" in the new organization. The overwhelming vote of the students in favor of the World Court has also received wide publicity.

But the phase of the meeting that is perhaps most significant is the attitude and the spirit of the young delegates themselves. There is nothing more important to the world than the ambitions and viewpoint of youth, and it is as a sample of what the young people in American colleges are really thinking about that this National Collegiate World Court Conference is chiefly important.

A friend of The Survey, who has genuine sympathy with youth and who is accustomed to public meetings, attended all the sessions of this conference as a spectator. He writes us, not a news report, but an impression of the gathering:

"The real spirit was mixed and changeable. Publicity methods were evident but not in control. There were really quite a lot of genuine expressions of what youth thinks about the possibilities of international cooperation.

"The atmosphere was eager, keen, but nervous at first, tiring on the second day (Saturday), revived by Vincent and closed in a feeling of intellectual humility, helpfulness and altruism. Then they had a sporadic fit of local-partisan feeling till 1 A.M. (Over the election of a Howard University student to the executive committee.) This was a minor accident.

"There were two hundred or more delegates all over an indifferent, sophisticated campus which regards the World Court issue as several years dead. Some came for pleasure, some to be nearer home or friends, some to learn, most to express the abstract, tensely-held opinions of modern youth. The Princeton faculty kept hands off. Some others did not. Uplifters and a lunatic fringe made an effort to head the meeting in for the League of Nations. This failed. There was the usual clash between theories of delegationism (fixed instructions) and of representation (sovereign body free to act and resolve), and much innocence of political methods. Leaving nominations to come from the floor, rather than from a slate, led to the color line rumpus.

"The modern student has nervous alertness rather than confidence, tight-throated voice, personality not free to play on a crowd. His presentation is not usually effective. They are *thin* talkers, broadcasting bits of opinion, not, apparently, possessed of time and power to move the crowd. The uniformity of instructions (*by students* on the home campus) was offset by curious diversities of feeling and of speech. Hence the delegates tended to take refuge in the instructions as set.

"There was an interesting response to the vivid, off-hand methods of Darrow and Vincent. The meeting was bored stiff by the business man (Herbert Houston). Lenroot only told them what they had already concluded.

"They showed a surprising knowledge (studious) of the details of international relations, but not much political power to use it. They need more Roberts' Rules of Order and also more political gall. If authority has set a pattern for action (Harding-Hughes-Coolidge reservations for instance) they will endorse if they agree, but they do not take their facts on authority. They are much more likely to take their facts on independent thinking. This independent thinking sometimes seems based on insufficient study due to the enormous fields now covered even by undergraduate courses. Of course the delegates themselves were predominantly tory-Republican. The eastern colleges are much more typical in that respect than I had thought. This is based on their absolutely type-Americanism."

PENN SCHOOL, on St. Helena Island, South Carolina, which has been the subject of several articles in Survey Graphic, notably those by the principal, Rossa B. Cooley, and the one in the September issue, on A School Somewhere, keeps on with its program of education by means of community activities, according to the sixty-third annual report. For example, the Island, under the leadership of the school, has for three years won prizes in the national Better Homes contest. Work along this line was begun in 1923, when the Island won third prize, with a six-room cottage completely furnished with borrowed furnishings. In 1924, a small Island house, repaired and furnished with home-made furnishings, won second prize. And in 1925, a house built of old and new lumber won a special first prize. "Better homes" has taken its place beside "better farming" in the idealism of the Island.

THE PROBLEM of devising a more adequate basis for testing the qualifications of applicants for college entrance than the traditional "college entrance examinations" is being studied on a large scale by the Ohio College Association this year. The Ohio State University intelligence test is used for a uniform research project on the problem which will include a survey of all students entering college in the state. Thirty-four colleges are cooperating, and almost twelve thousand tests have been given. The distributions of scores in the different colleges are now being prepared for comparison.

THE PRESS of New York recently carried the story of "Tony Dumbbell." His real name is Tony Ignace, and he is "fourteen goin' on fifteen." He is, according to the reporter's account, "slim and tall, with dark hair and eyes and a sensitive face." He started school at seven, but he was frequently ill. Sickness kept him from being promoted. "I was in 5B five times," he said. He worked hard, making up his work, but he "just couldn't get arithmetic." He was the class lummox. They called him "Tony Dumbbell." He became convinced that he was a "dumbbell." And so one evening, before his mother, who speaks no English, returned from work, he drank some iodine, turned on the gas jets and lay down to die. Neighbors found him and got him to the hospital in time for the doctors to save his life. The newspapers, "playing" a "human interest story" comment on the poverty and the ignorance of Tony's home. But what of the failure of an educational "system" which would permit a child's pride and self-respect to be so wounded that death was preferable to life, and that would keep a boy for five years in a dreary treadmill, trying to drill into him the mechanical details of a subject he "couldn't get"!

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A New Wage Policy for Labor?

THE increasing productivity of American industry, the constant development of new methods of machine manufacture and improvement of power resources has been engaging the attention of the rest of the world. Recently it became the basis of a declaration of wage policy by organized American labor. The newspapers announced that the American Federation of Labor, in annual convention, had formulated a wage policy to fit an age marked by "man's increasing power of production." The resolution passed is as follows:

We recommend endorsement of the statement of the Executive Council on Wages. We hold that the best interests of wage-earners, as well as the whole social group, are served, increasing production in quality as well as by quantity, by high wage standards, which assure sustained purchasing power to the workers and therefore higher national standards for the environment in which they live and the means to enjoy cultured opportunities. We declare that wage reductions produce industrial and social unrest and that low wages are not conducive to low production costs. We urge upon wage-earners everywhere:

That we oppose all wage reductions, and that we urge upon management the elimination of waste in production in order that selling prices may be lower and wages higher. To this end we recommend cooperation in study of waste in production, which the assay of the Federated American Engineering Societies covering important industries has shown to be 50 per cent attributable to management and only 25 per cent attributable to labor, with 25 per cent attributable to other sources, principally managements in industries producing commodities for any single industry under consideration.

Social inequality, industrial instability, and injustice must increase unless the workers' real wages—the purchasing power of their wages—coupled with a continuing reduction in the number of hours making up the working day, are progressed in proportion to man's increasing power over production.

According to the New York Times, "the weight of the pronouncement, in expressed opinions of the delegates, was in the last paragraph." The pronouncement itself, it will be seen at a reading, is very general in meaning, as if the intent were not altogether clear, and in part repetitious. What is there new in it as an expression of the wage policy of organized labor? What is there sound, practicable, and important?

There are several possible novel elements—possible only—because the phrasing of the statement does not permit certainty as to its significance. Any comment upon the statement must resemble somewhat the gloss upon a Bible text. The first paragraph may or may not contain the expression of a fresh intention. The wage earners benefit by increasing production and improving the quality of production; they are to cooperate in study of the waste of production. There is a new note, though it may not be a clear one. The American Federation of Labor, in a general way, pledges itself to assist actively in plans calculated to increase production; they range themselves by the side of employers in that effort. It is an offer on the part of organized labor to bring into the shop the will to cooperate for that purpose. As an indicator of the psychological state of organized labor this is important. Whether it means that labor is willing to accept such schemes of wage payment and such methods of management as it has hitherto generally opposed, only experience can tell. Whether unions will modify any working rules that may stand in the way of production only experience can tell also. It will probably depend in part upon what safeguards and recompenses they are offered. The Baltimore and Ohio plan of cooperation is probably an example of the arrangement it is hoped to work out—based on the recognition of unionism.

THE declarations in opposition to reductions and in favor of wage increases are in themselves, of course, not new. But the last paragraph indicates a new idea in process of growth. Wages must be increased and hours reduced "in proportion to man's increasing power of production"; sustained purchasing power is to be assured to the wage-earners. The convention discussions indicate that these statements had a definite train of reasoning behind them, and might be made into the basis of a definite wage policy. Real wages—wages in terms of goods and services—are not to be decreased—and are to be advanced in the ratio that production may increase.

Hitherto organized labor has entered into wage agreements without any definite policy. A few agreements such as those in the New York printing trades provided that wages should be regulated according to some definite standard or principles, in this instance in accordance with changes in the cost of living and in the condition of the industry, in other instances according to other principles or standards. But for the most part organized labor has considered the business of wage agreement merely as a process of bargaining and compromise—a testing out of the labor market by an assertion of collective strength.

It is not to be expected that this method will pass, or that this process will seriously change. Yet here is proposed a new basis or guiding rule for this process, a new terrain for maneuvering. It is asserted that wages should be adjusted with reference to "man's increasing power of production."

The tendency for human effectiveness in production to grow is assumed. That is certainly an assumption that could only be made in the American industrial atmosphere. But after all this is a declaration of wage policy by American labor so the assumption is not strange or unreasonable. Yet even in the United States the volume of production fluctuates. Is it intended that wages move down as well as up with the movements of production? The question must be left unanswered.

This is not the only question of meaning, of interpreta-

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tion in practice, presented by the declaration, nor the only question of soundness. The assertion that wages are to be adjusted with reference to production may mean with reference to the production of individual wage earners, of groups of wage earners, of individual enterprises or industries, or of our industrial organization as a whole.

Various schemes of wage payment, piece payment, bonus and premium plans already in use are based on the idea that wages are thereby adjusted to individual production. But these are the types of plans which organized labor has ordinarily opposed; it is not to be assumed that the attempt to enunciate a new wage policy reduces itself to a belated acceptance of them, though it may designate something of a new attitude even towards them.

NO, something larger, broader in scope, is intended. Wages are to be adjusted with reference to the growth of production of individual industries or of our industrial organization as a whole. Even here there are two possible lines of policy. An attempt to adjust wages in any industry to production within that industry would be very different from an attempt to adjust them on the basis of the productive output of our whole industrial system. The first would mean merely an assertion that the workers employed in an industry should get the benefits of any improvement in the productive operations of that industry, rather than the consumers of that product or the stockholders. This policy, one may venture to say, would reduce itself to a plain process of bargaining little different from the past. Shortly before the war the railroad brotherhoods in several important arbitrations based wage claims on this principle but the Arbitration Boards refused to give it weight. On the other hand, this principle has really been taken into account in many settelements in the clothing trades, where general wage increases have been granted on the ground that production per worker had increased. The same argument has been brought forward in wage disputes in the coal industry. It must be remarked in passing that if wage agreements were to be based wholly or even mainly on this principle, wage movements in different industries would be very different from each other; workers in industries employing a stationary technique would not receive the same increase as workers of the same kind or grade benefitting by a constantly improving technique. This divergence, it is plain, could not under our present industrial system go very far; the principle would soon be relegated to the scrap-heap if not constantly modified in application. It can never be of predominant importance; but it may be useful as one of a number of principles in a general wage policy.

THE broadest possible interpretation of the announced policy is left, and it is probable that it is this interpretation which is meant—wages are to be adjusted with reference to the output of goods and services of our whole industrial system. The worker's imagination has been caught by the great increases in production which the course of invention promises; they will rest their future hopes of economic improvement upon that promise. I doubt whether serious opposition can be offered to that assertion of purpose from any quarter. But is there any way to apply it in practice as a definite principle. Will it ever be possible to say in clear terms what wage changes meet its requirements? Or will it reduce itself merely to a new basis for resisting wage cuts and claiming wage increases, new but no less vague than those on which wage bargaining has always been conducted?

In essence the principle is certainly sound. An industrial system such as ours which is turning out an increased volume of product per person certainly ought to yield wage-earners a rising real wage. Furthermore, such a sharing out of the product may be essential if industry in general is not to suffer extremely serious periodic crises owing to the fact that capital investment expands the producing capacity of the staple industries beyond the capacity of the workers to buy their product. I am not suggesting the possibility of *general* overproduction, but merely of extremely serious *misdirected* investment.

Is it possible to work out a policy of wage adjustment with reference to the total product of industry? That product, a heterogeneous flow of goods and services, can be measured by totalling up the money values of the product of each industry, or by means of indices of the volume of physical product. Both means of measurement are now in use; both are subject to a considerable margin of error. But assume that they are reliable enough! Assume further that they will show on January 1, 1926, that the per capita product of industry during 1925 has been 5 per cent more than during the previous year. Should the wages of all groups and kinds of workers be automatically advanced in that ratio? The question answers itself. Some industries will be found to be very prosperous and in a position to make a larger advance; other industries will be found in a position to make no advance at all. Some groups of workers will be in a position to demand more; others in a position to demand nothing at all.

The principle can not be made into a whole wage policy. If it is to be used at all, it can only be in combination with other bases of decision. A variety of other conditions and circumstances besides the movement in general production must be taken into account when settling wages in any particular industry. Principles may be formulated which take them into account. It may be possible to elaborate a satisfactory, though complex set of standards which would give weight to the claim of the American Federation of Labor, and also take heed of the peculiarities of each wage situation. This is not the occasion to attempt to elaborate such a set of standards. The principles formulated by Congress for the use of the Railroad Labor Board are a somewhat unsuccessful instance of such an effort.

The American Federation of Labor declaration does not, by itself, fill the bill. It will not enable labor representatives to enter a room where a wage agreement is being discussed, and turn the process of settlement into one of the application of clear principle instead of a process of bargain and struggle. In that sense the declaration of wage policy is plainly inadequate. As a statement of an ethical claim it can not be disputed; as a vague expression of economic purpose it is sound. But unless it should turn out to be merely a starting point for a thorough study of the whole question of what principles should be used in settling wages, it leaves this national problem just where it was—a matter of bargain, bluff, and sometimes combat between workers and employers.

HERBERT FEIS

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The Outworkers

THE problem of home work in tenements which, to many socially minded people has seemed so thoroughly "regulated" the last few years as to have ceased to be a problem, turns up in the annual report of Nelle Swartz, director of the Bureau of Women in Industry, New York Department of Labor, as a very real issue indeed.

Miss Swartz observes that the volume of homework "has been greater during the fiscal year of July 1, 1924 to June 30, 1925, than any other given year since the passage of the homework law."

In New York state, which with New York city and Rochester, includes two of the largest clothing markets in the country, there are 16,050 licensed tenements, in which 24,863 workers were occupied during the year just closed. Forty-nine per cent of the homework was on men's clothing, but among the eighty-odd kinds of articles that the inspectors found being made in tenement homes the report lists: frogs and loops, brassieres, powder puffs, cigars and cigarettes, lamp shades, ten-pins, elastic cord, vanity cases, curtains, fish lines, and hair nets.

The present New York law applies to tenements, defined as houses occupied independently by three or more families. Work in one and two family houses is thus entirely unregulated. In one street in Brooklyn, for example, there are 19 licensed tenements in five blocks. In the same five blocks there are 18 one and two-family houses where homework is being done under far worse conditions than those of the inspected and regulated tenements. The law requires that every employer must obtain from the Bureau a permit before giving out homework, and that the owner or agent of any tenement where home work is done must be licensed. Before such license is issued, the sanitary conditions of the tenement must pass the inspection of the Home Work Division of the Bureau. A list of employers who have permits and of licensed tenements is published quarterly.

In 1913 a provision was put in the bill forbidding the manufacture of dolls, dolls' clothing and infants' and children's clothing by homeworkers. It was hoped by the backers of that provision that other articles could be added to the list from time to time until all homework was gradually abolished. Actually no other articles have ever been added, and, because of changes in styles and customs this process has been found impractical as a final solution of the question. It would be impossible to make a list sufficiently inclusive to cover the whole range of homework. The manufacture of dolls, for instance, has become largely a factory practice. Instead of making and dressing dolls homeworkers now stuff toy animals and paint wooden toys.

The chief factors in the homework problem are the protection of the public against the danger of infection or contagion through goods manufactured under unsanitary conditions, which has been so heavily stressed; the exploitation of the workers; and the effect on labor standards. As to the latter, the Women's Bureau has nearly completed the most exhaustive study yet undertaken in this country to show the relation between the total wages of "in workers" and "out workers" and also the increase of "out work" during the last five years. The study, based on the payrolls in the Rochester and New York markets, should throw fresh light on the implications of homework for adult wage-earners.

Child labor also belongs to this part of the problem. Theoretically, the same law applies to child homeworkers as to child factory workers: no child under fourteen may work, the child must have a work permit, etc. Actually, such provisions in regard to homework are almost impossible to enforce. Under the law, the inspector must actually see the child at work to make a valid case. It is very easy, of course, to hide children or to hide work after the inspector knocks at the door, and also for children to work between the visits of the inspector. There are only twenty inspectors for the entire state of New York. Last year, 217 children were actually found at work, ranging in age from five to fifteen years, all but two of them during school hours.

There is no regulation of hours of work or wages for homeworkers. Often work is given out weekly to be paid for at the end of the month, and when pay day comes the contractor who gave out the work is found to have "moved away." Frequently pay is refused because the work is "unsatisfactory," though the contractor keeps the finished articles.

Homework may, under certain circumstances, be a grave danger to the standards which organized labor has established. Last fall, for example, there was a strike in certain New York factories making artificial flowers. The attempt at bettering working conditions was unsuccessful, and it was generally conceded that the strike was broken by the employers' temporary reorganization of their business on a homework basis.

How Enforce the Law?

The nub of the homework problem is its administrative difficulty. Every suggested remedy strikes the snag of the almost hopelessly complex and unwieldy system of administration involved. The application of the minimum wage principle to homework, or a law requiring more extensive supervision, immediately requires a large and elaborate administrative machine to prevent violations—so large and so elaborate that the law falls of its own weight. In a small "clothing factory," for instance, a man who has saved a little capital may have one or two cutters, cutting tables, some material and patterns as his sole equipment. Only the cutting is done on the premises. Coats, pants and vests are then sent to contractors to be sewed; he sends them to a subcontractor for buttonholes; he gives them out to homeworkers for finishing. To trace such devious windings, and regulate at every stage this one phase of home work would be a herculean labor.

The enforcement of the law regulating homework, it is reported, has been much more active in the eighteen months since, on Commissioner Bernard J. Shientag's recommendation, it was placed under the Bureau of Women in Industry.

Miss Swartz feels that any adequate meeting of the present homework situation must be a "three cornered affair between the manufacturers, the unions and the public." In December, she called a conference of about twenty-five leading trade union officials of New York to discuss the question. They were all much astonished to learn of the size of the homework problem and promised her their cooperation in the enforcement of the existing law, which offers some degree of protection, at least, to both the public and the workers.

A provision in the law giving the department the same

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control over one and two family houses as it now has over tenements is urgently needed.

If the Bureau is to function efficiently, additional clerical help and two more statistical workers are required. "If we are to make progress from year to year in homework control it can only be made through a knowledge of facts," Miss Swartz points out in her report. "This phase of the homework situation has been neglected in the past."

Finally, Miss Swartz feels that a campaign of education, which will ensure the support of the press, the courts, the charity and welfare organizations and the general public must go "hand in hand with the enforcement end of the homework law. . . . One hundred per cent enforcement can never be achieved in this state unless an inspector sits on the door-step of every tenement 24 hours a day." A measure of enforcement that would provide a reasonable degree of protection for both the public and the homeworkers depends, Miss Swartz feels, on "cooperation between the Departments of Education and Labor, particularly in some of the foreign neighborhoods," and upon enlightened public opinion.

Compensation in Washington

THE Washington state workmen's compensation law, the first to be upheld as constitutional, has been a perennial political battlefield since its passage in 1911, and is at present being attacked by two groups seeking to change its general plan. A bill to permit self-insurance has been introduced in the legislature now in session. This measure is sponsored by a number of large employers. In addition, representatives of various casualty insurance companies have announced their intention of initiating an act providing for casualty company and state fund insurance on a competitive basis, with a higher schedule of awards than that now in force based upon the average weekly earnings of the injured workman.

In Washington at present compensation is administered under an exclusive state fund or state monopoly plan; all injured workmen are paid the same schedule of awards, regardless of their earning capacity. As originally adopted, the Act was administered by a commission of three members appointed by the governor. In 1921 the state adopted an administrative code, and the powers and duties of all the various boards and commissions administering labor laws were merged under the control of one appointive official designated as the Director of Labor and Industries. The industrial insurance act is administered under this plan by a supervisor appointed by the director.

The original law was a compromise between employers and employes and was an experiment. Its awards were fixed on a low scale compared with many of the workmen's compensation acts now in force in other states. Each biennium the legislature has had before it bills seeking to increase the compensation paid to injured workmen and their dependents. These have been consistently fought by the employer groups and sponsored by the labor groups. In 1917, 1919, and 1923 compromise bills were passed increasing the schedule of awards in one or more particulars. While exact comparison of awards is difficult because the factor of the amount of the wage is not taken into consideration in Washington, it is generally admitted that on the whole the schedule of compensation is below that paid in the other Pacific Coast states, most of the eastern states, and the Middle West, and is comparable only to the awards of some of the southern states.

For example, a Washington workman receives $35 a month during total disability, with an additional $5 if he is married, $12.50 for the first child, $7.50 for the second and $5 each for additional children. In cases of permanent partial disability, the compensation is $1,080 for the loss of the sight of one eye, $1,560 for the loss of a leg, $1,920 for loss of the major hand, $2,400 for the loss of a leg where an artificial limb cannot be worn. In case of death, the widow receives a pension of $35 a month until death or remarriage, with $12.50 for the first child, $7.50 for the second, and $5 for the other children of the family. In the case of an unmarried man, dependents receive between them one half of the average monthly support contributed, with a total limit of $20 a month.

In Ohio, the compensation for total temporary disability is 66⅔ per cent of the weekly wage for a maximum period of six years, and a maximum amount of $3,750. For total permanent disability, the compensation is as above for life, with no maximum amount set. In case of partial disability, the compensation is 66⅔ per cent of the average wage for a period of from 10 to 200 weeks. In case of death, funeral expenses not to exceed $150 are paid, and to total dependents compensation of 66⅔ per cent of the average earnings is allowed for 8 years, with a minimum of $2,000 and a maximum of $6,500. The maximum "average weekly wage" to be used as a basis for the above computations is fixed at $18.75.

In California, compensation is allowed on a basis of 65 per cent of the average wage, with a minimum average of $6.41 and a maximum of $32.05 established. In case of temporary total disability the maximum term is 240 weeks. In permanent total disability it is 240 weeks at 65 per cent, and thereafter 40 per cent for life. In cases of partial disability, the term runs from 4 weeks for 1 per cent disability to 240 weeks for 60 per cent disability and for life if 70 per cent or more. In case of death, burial expenses not to exceed $100 are paid, and 65 per cent of the average earnings to run for three years, with a minimum of $1,000 and a maximum of $5,000.

Under the present Washington act, the premium rates are the lowest in the United States, exclusive of a few of the southern states. The cost of administration is paid out of the general funds of the state. Insofar as the administration of the Industrial Insurance Act is merged with the administration of other labor functions, an accurate estimate of the cost is impossible. It amounts to approximately 4 per cent of the money handled. Employers are required to pay the entire industrial insurance cost, but by a most exceptional provision are permitted to charge half the medical aid premiums to their workmen.

The Department handles about 35,000 claims each year. Few of these come to the attention of the supervisor. Most of the decisions are made by clerks as routine business. Decisions are made upon written records, without hearings or the taking of evidence except in unusual cases. The decision of the Department is final on matters of fact, no appeal lying from its adjudication of matters within its discretion.

All employers in extra hazardous industries are required, under heavy penalty, to report their payrolls and pay premiums. The fact that an employer has failed to pay premiums

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The question of state fund versus competitive systems of workmen's compensation is the subject of the exhaustive study, Comparisons of Workmen's Compensation Insurance and Administration, made for the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the late Carl Hookstadt in 1922. Mr. Hookstadt summarized his findings in part:

The records show that the state funds

Do business 25 to 30 per cent cheaper than stock companies . . .

Pay compensation as promptly as private carriers or self-insurers;

Are more liberal in settling claims and appeal fewer cases to the commissions and courts.

does not prejudice the rights of the injured workmen to compensation from the state fund, nor does it give the workmen the right of election to sue the employer.

The merit of the present Washington compensation law lies in the broad scope of its protection, its low cost of administration, and in its low premium cost, although there is some ground for the contention of labor groups that this is secured in large part at the expense of the injured workmen due to the low awards paid.

Such a measure as this, with its unique flat rate system, which needs constant revision and modification to keep it abreast of changing industrial and economic conditions, easily becomes a political plaything. Impatience with political methods and administrative detail often results in wholesale condemnation of the measure involved. The present danger in Washington is that the need of modifying the present law and the difficulty involved in securing a just and adequate revision in rate of award and flexibility of administration will end by creating a general distrust of the principle of a state plan of workmen's compensation.

IRENE S. DURHAM

THE 1925 records of the Bureau of Mines to November 1 report ten "major" disasters, that is, accidents in which five or more lives were lost, as compared with nine such disasters in 1924. The aggregate number of lives lost in such accidents during 1925 was 198, an encouraging gain over the ten month figure for 1924 of 452. The per-million-ton death rate for both anthracite and bituminous mines based exclusively on these major disasters was 0.41 this year as compared with 0.96 during the first ten months of 1924. The Bureau of Mines reports that 140,000 mineworkers have now been trained in mine rescue and first aid methods. The main purpose of the bureau's recently organized safety extension service will be to give advanced training in rescue work and bring to the attention of mine officials the latest advances made in the prevention of mine flares and explosions and in the conduct of rescue operation and disasters. The investigation into the explosibility of the dusts of different coals is being continued. The manner in which an explosion traverses mine workings and the ways in which mine gases and dusts may be ignited are also being studied. After a series of tests at the bureau's experimental coal mine which demonstrated how widespread coal dust explosions could be prevented by coating the walls, roof and floor of mine passages with rock dust, operators of bituminous mines in different parts of the country are rock dusting their mines [see The Survey, March 15, 1925]. One state now requires that rock dust be used in all coal mines and several states specify its use as an alternate to watering the mine. For the protection of men exposed to injurious dusts, the Bureau of Mines has developed a new respirator with high filtering efficiency and a low resistance to breathing. The use of respirators in certain mine processes has long been advocated, but progress in their adoption has not been as rapid as the health hazard warrants. The betterment of mine explosives and the use of electrical equipment in mines are the subjects of research by the Bureau of Mines in cooperation with the British Department of Mines.

OPPOSITION to the so-called "speed up system" on the part of the National Federation of Post Office Clerks continues. A bill abolishing the system was re-introduced the first week of the present session of Congress by Representative Schneider of Wisconsin, who sponsored it last session. The system, which originated in the Chicago Post Office and has been extended to other offices during the past two years, is a method for measuring by weight the output of distributers. It has not yet been standardized, and its application differs in the various offices where it is in operation. Spokesmen for the Department at the hearings on the bill last winter insisted that "the weighing of each distributer's output was intended only to weed out the unfit and the dishonest malingerer and to reward the faithful and the honest by crediting him with all he does. . . ." They pictured it as "a benign system that would eradicate all favoritism and stimulate promotions." Post Office employes, however, argue that "regardless of the exact method of operation, the purpose is the same—namely, to speed the workers beyond their normal pace and to keep constantly before them the haunting, harassing fear that any let-up or slackening of effort, no matter from what cause, will result in the demotion or dismissal penalty." They further condemn the system as inefficient, because it results in "a scramble for the heavier mail by the distributer bent on making a good record on paper," and "penalizes the accurate clerk who watches for underpaid letters and uncancelled stamps." Thomas Flaherty, secretary of the Federation of Post Office Clerks, comments, "A long experience with postal officialdom, including its local ramifications, has taught us to view with grave misgivings any sudden interest shown by officials in protecting the humble clerk against the errors of judgment of his immediate bosses. . . . The weighing system, as now in operation in the Postal Service is detrimental to service efficiency and to the morale and health of those workers upon whom it is inflicted."

THE Commonwealth Service Association, an organization of 1,200 state officials and general employes of Massachusetts, has been formed, in spite of the outspoken opposition of Governor Fuller. Dissatisfaction over "the failure to grant the increases in salary provided by the budget act of this year," as well as "false economy in the purchase of supplies, an unbusinesslike and inexpedient printing program and lengthy delays in filling requisitions, particularly for printing" are cited by one of the leaders of the new organization as the chief reasons for its formation. When the tentative plans for the Association were announced several weeks ago, Governor Fuller stated, "No person who would through joint action attempt to compel the state to increase his or her salary need expect any special consideration of a favorable nature from me. I welcome the opportunity of saying this before some innocent young people find themselves belonging to an organization that is in the control of some radicals whose action may get the membership in trouble." George B. Willard, state deputy treasurer, the president of the Commonwealth Service Association, compares the organization to the union of railway post office employes and gives Governor Fuller this reassurance: "We want the

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authorities and the public to know that a strike of our members is unthinkable and impossible. To strike would be breaking faith with the Commonwealth of Massachusetts." Among the other officers of the organization are the registrar of motor vehicles, the assistant director of the Division of Hygiene, the chief clerk in the Department of Conservation, and the supervisor of mothers' aid in the Department of Public Welfare.

A LABOR BILL so radical that it is said to be causing a near-panic among business leaders, both native and foreign, has passed the Mexican Chamber of Deputies and is pending in the Senate. The bill is being pushed by organized labor leaders, who contend that Mexican workmen have been mercilessly exploited, that they have had to endure miserable working and living conditions and that they have been notoriously underpaid. Some improvements have been made since the revolution, but, the labor leaders insist, basic reforms are needed. The bill, as passed by the Chamber of Deputies, makes profit-sharing with employes compulsory. It empowers employes' committees to examine the books of their employers, to ascertain costs and earnings and to fix the amount of the profits to be divided among the workers. Employers are given the option of declining this scheme and paying instead a flat 10 per cent salary bonus to every worker. The bill also requires workmen's compensation for injuries, sickness insurance, eight-hour work-day with overtime payments, and a minimum wage determined by employes' committees. Eighty per cent of the employes of every concern must be Mexicans. Employers are also required to give technical education to certain workers, and, in some cases, to provide suitable dwellings. One wonders what American labor group would seriously consider having such a measure introduced into Congress. It would probably be an entirely "safe" proceding, however: the measure would be considered so daring that it would probably never come up for debate or for vote.

IN A RECENT DECISION the Georgia Supreme Court has again upheld section 125 of the state Penal Code which makes it a misdemeanor to persuade any servant, cropper or farm laborer under written or parole contract to leave his employment by offering higher wages "or in any other way." The case, Rhoden vs. The State, is that of the employe of a lumber company who in 1924 was "enticed, persuaded and decoyed" to leave his job and accept one with another lumber company which paid $3.00 a day. This law has been on Georgia's statute books in one form or another since 1866. The original object of such a provision was undoubtedly to protect the land owner in a one-crop state who had to support his laborers and croppers during the winter in order to get the benefit of their labor during the spring and summer. It has been applied to both white and colored workers, as Georgia has a great many white croppers. Such labor is free to make changes in the fall, after the harvest, and most of it does "move on" each year. A land owner who provides food, clothing and housing for the winter for a family should perhaps be protected by a civil statute against those cases where the laborer does not remain to complete the contract. But such a law as this, which provides a penalty for what is in no sense a criminal offense, and which enforces parole contracts covering a year's labor, is fraught with grave danger. It immediately becomes a strong weapon for the intimidation of ignorant labor, and a defense for those who prefer a feudal to a system of free labor, bound only by carefully drawn and justly enforced written contracts.

THAT necessity makes strange bedfellows was surely never more convincingly demonstrated than in the joint campaign of the Lord's Day Alliance and the Actors' Equity to enforce the state law forbidding Sunday theaters. The sanctioning of Sunday performances of legitimate attractions in the theatres of Buffalo, New York, has made allies of two forces that John Wesley would surely have recognized as "the powers of light and darkness." "The Lord's Day Alliance works hand in hand with the Actors' Equity Association for Sunday closing," said the Reverend A. Brooks, educational secretary of the Alliance, in a recent statement. Equity bases its support of the "blue laws" not on religious but on welfare grounds. Sunday performances, it is pointed out, would mean a seven-day week for actors and actresses. Equity has maintained an uncompromising stand against Sunday night performances, and this conviction is incorporated in the ten year agreement between Equity and the Managers' Protective Association, adopted more than a year ago. The law in question is article 192 of the Penal Code, which forbids the acting of "legitimate" plays—i. e., dramatic entertainments which are neither vaudeville or motion pictures—on Sunday.

FOLLOWING its second successful experiment in providing summer "vacation and education" for trade unionists (see The Survey, Sept. 15, p. 633) Brookwood Labor College at Katonah has again a capacity student body for the winter session numbering about fifty. The students represent various sections of the United States and more than a dozen industries and trade unions. Three labor men from foreign countries are enrolled, including a wood worker from Danzig, Germany; a metal worker from Sweden; and a textile worker from England who comes as an exchange student from Ruskin College, Oxford. Indicative of labor's growing interest in the problem of unionizing the increasingly numerous Negro workers in northern industries is the fact that Brookwood has two colored students this year, a young man from Virginia and a young woman from Brooklyn. Both hold scholarships provided through the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. That organized labor values Brookwood, the only resident trade union educational institution in the United States, is shown by the extent to which local unions now finance the annual budget of the college.

A LAW regulating the recruiting of labor in Japan, designed as a protection for women workers, has recently gone into effect. The existing labor situation in Japan has few parallels in other countries. Half the factories in Japan are dyeing and weaving works and 82 per cent of the operatives in these processes are women. Sixty per cent of the dyeing and weaving works have dormitories attached to them, and 502,822 women workers were boarded and lodged in these quarters at the end of 1922. Most of the women, the records show, come from some distance and are probably recruited in the agricultural districts. Most of them are unmarried. Recruiters to maintain this army of workers go from the cities into the villages and farming districts, and irresponsible promises as well as violent and insulting methods are often used to get girls and women into the factories. The result has been resentment and restlessness on the part of the workers, with frequent and expensive labor turnover for the employers. The new law requires the licensing of recruiting agents, the use of cards of information or blank contracts setting forth the actual work conditions and wages, the strict control of recruiting procedure; and it makes the recruiting master responsible for returning workers to their homes when they have been enticed away by false promises, when the worker has been mistreated by the recruiting agent or the superintendent of the work place, or when work is refused after a test or physical examination. The trade union movement has developed vigorously in Japan during recent years, but it has made little progress among women textile workers who are, for the most part, young and poorly educated, and who usually remain only a short time in employment. Until they are more strongly organized, such legislation as this act is essential for their protection.

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COMMUNITIES

The Problem of New York

The general director of plans and surveys for the Regional Plan of New York and its Environs here writes the first of a pair of articles in which he will present the scope and purpose of the enormously difficult enterprise which he is guiding. For an account of its initiation, see The Survey for May 20, 1922.

IT is a sort of cult to regard the city as an artificial, and sometimes even as a monstrous, aggregation of human beings. I think it was Longfellow who once expressed a contrary view to that held by many, and spoke of the town as the place he would choose to live in, where contacts with human nature aroused emotions that stimulated art and literature more than the natural beauties of the country. But in Longfellow's day the town was not so industrialized and artificial as it is today. There was still a happy communion between town and country, even in the centers of industry.

New England, which has been the home of some of the best literature of America, has also been the place where social order in town development has received its best expression; at least when we think of the country town. One of the tragedies of the West has been that in the hurry-scurry speculation of modern times the repose and spaciousness of the early towns of New England and of the southern states has been mostly lost.

It is a far cry from the broad elm-planted avenue and village green of the New England town to the great modern city like New York. The elements that enter into town building and that make it a thing to promote or retard civilization are the same in both cases. There is a curious inconsistency between the excuses that some people offer for the crowded city side by side with the craving that they show for getting away to the solitude of the country. And today one finds an increasing urge on the part of people in the great city to live as much in the country as possible, even if their work calls them into the congested areas. Of these people it might be said that their love for the city is a love for gain, or, perhaps more strictly, a desire for a competence for themselves and their families—while their love of country is a real affection.

IF once we could develop a love of town and city we should have better cities, and not merely places where people are forced to work and from which they desire to get away as frequently as possible. As Professor Lethaby expresses it, "A town sense, which rests on reverence for the idea of towns as the physical expression of social order, is what is needed to make town planning a living art." In so far as town planning is at present a living art or may become so, it will tend to the fostering of town love. The city planner has, in Lethaby's phrase, "to bring back some sense of town sacredness and worship. It would be better." he says, "to love our own cities than to be expensively instructed that the Athenians and Florentines reverenced theirs."

In cities that have been planned, like Washington, Edinburgh, and Paris, we have seen admirable examples of civilized and beautiful structural growth, and have learned that the display and surroundings of buildings are as important as their architectural quality. We have learned too that no architect can rise above the need of natural surroundings to make his building a finished thing of beauty. We have learned that the incongruity and ugliness which must creep into any crowded city, however well planned, can have no screen that hides their blemishes other than the screen that is given by the natural furnishings of trees. Moreover, in the climate of this western hemisphere, these natural features that make for beauty have a utilitarian value in providing shade and conserving moisture.

Unfortunately, the spirit that created the city of Washington—the inspiration of the men who were responsible for the Constitution of the country of which it is the capital—survives with a tardiness and lack of courage in this mechanical age. Although men dare not destroy the beauty and spaciousness that were given to Washington, and have done much to promote them, one cannot look on the modern development in the suburbs of the Capital City without the feeling that the spirit of the Washington tradition does not prevail in the newer growth. These new suburbs are largely accidental outgrowths that fail to harmonize with the dignity of the city's center. The city of Washington has left behind the day of the city plan. That plan was prepared by L'Enfant under the direction of Washington and Jefferson. Today it needs a regional plan which should be prepared with due regard to the spirit of its great founders.

IN the last hundred years New York has grown away from the town-country ideal; until today its citizens are compelled to regard the open field and the garden surrounding the home as something out of keeping with the character of city growth. Remnants of natural beauty remain in the too limited areas that have been rescued for recreation in the city, but generally speaking it has prospered and grown by devouring instead of by merging itself into its rural surroundings. With economic forces as they are we cannot hope to replan New York in such a way as to obtain any reasonable balance between buildings and open surroundings as are necessary to obtain any condition of environment that approaches the ideal. If our object in planning be to provide for the people of the city "dwellings which they could come to with pleasure and surroundings which would soothe and elevate them," in the crowded parts of the city we are almost compelled to give up hope of amelioration and say with the poet that we can achieve

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New York: Not Quite Successful

NEW YORK is the capital of the State and stands on the south west point of Manhattan. . . . The principal part of the city lies on the east side of the Island. . . . The length of the city is about two miles. Its breadth on an average is nearly three-fourths of a mile. . . . The city contained in 1810, 93,914 inhabitants. . . . New York is esteemed the most eligible situation for commerce in the United States.—*From a Geography published in* 1819.

Embraced by "those large arms of the sea," rigidly bound to a street scheme designed in 1911, Manhattan has leaped into the air; it has thrust out its transportation arms until men and women travel fifty miles to their daily labor in the city; until the great area of which Manhattan is the center is in 1922 the home of no less than nine millions of people. . . . Without a guiding plan, what of New York one hundred years hence? Momentous decisions are being constantly made, decisions that are local, piecemeal and unrelated to the larger trends. The time has come for unified planning in the interest of the whole people.—*Charles D. Norton.*

It is that plan which makes the city a better place to live in and a better place to work in that most interests the Sage Foundation.—*Robert W. de Forest.*

With the growth of the city has come great crowding, most uncomfortable crowding. . . . It is in parts of the city where the greater portion of the population live that the conditions are most distressing. . . . We haven't quite succeeded in building a city. Something is wrong about it. . . . I hope for our city in the future that the immense increment to human happiness, which comes from the cultivation of tastes, may be gratified and nourished by laying before the people, always, objects that are noble and beautiful, that will ennoble and beautify character, so that the people of this great city will contribute to the character of America not weakness, but strength and vigor.—*Elihu Root.*

no healing
Save what may be in stemming further ill.

But in the environs—in the partially developed areas that still surround the city—there are still opportunities to heal the defects of urban growth and even to do the more effective thing of preventing their recurrence.

Thus the greatest opportunity afforded by planning the New York Region lies in the scope it offers to bring about a better balanced growth in the suburban and semi-rural areas that encircle the city. The Region of New York as it is seen by those engaged in the task of making a skeleton plan for its future development comprises 5,528 square miles. In the center of this vast area there is the city with its congested districts covering Manhattan, Brooklyn, Bronx and parts of Queens and Staten Island. These crowded areas present one phase of the problem, a phase that involves replanning rather than planning—reconstruction rather than construction. In the state census for 1925 the population in the five boroughs of the city is given as 5,873,356. Of this population, 4,148,264 live in Manhattan and Brooklyn. The average density in Manhattan approaches 140 to the acre, and in Brooklyn it is over 50 to the acre. In Bronx it is over 32 to the acre, in Queens slightly over 10, and in Staten Island well under 4. Manhattan is decreasing in population but grows in congestion because of its centralized business activities and the growing volume of day population that maintains these activities.

What New York suffers from most is unbalanced growth. This is being encouraged to continue and extend as a result of the character of real estate activities in the outer fringes. Values of land and building heights and densities in the suburbs are based on potentialities of growth that occurred in Manhattan. But if it were possible for the density of Manhattan to be repeated in the whole city, an average of 140 persons to the acre would ultimately give the city a population of 26,622,540, within the present city boundaries. No such population is likely to ever occupy the area—no matter how great an aggregation of people may ultimately live in the whole New York Region. If Manhattan continued stationary in population and the density of the remainder of the city increased to that of Brooklyn, this would give a population of 10,751,179 for the whole of New York. This may be regarded as meeting any reasonable expectations of growth for from sixty to one hundred years, and it is on the basis of such a population that zoning laws should be established.

The evils of congestion from which the city suffers in the central areas are mainly due to excess of building densities and bad arrangement of business and residential uses. The streets were planned wide enough to take care of properly planned and properly lighted buildings of reasonable bulk. It is not the street system that is wrong, but the use of the land fronting upon the streets.

THIS is not a condemnation of the skyscraper, which has its uses and is, if properly designed, a thing of beauty. In making a brief study of New York in 1911 before the zoning resolution was passed by the city, I found myself trying to discover a mean between the views of those who represented the extremes of much aversion or much favor towards high buildings. My sympathies were with the out-spreading rather than the up-spreading of the city as a means of securing the sum of business facility, beauty and amenity; and one may have these sympathies and yet appreciate the artistic and economic values of the high building. I then said:

The accidental grandeur of a combination of skyscrapers may give rise to artistic emotion; so also may the flaming furnaces round Pittsburgh and Birmingham in the black night that forms a shroud to the desolation around them. But the artist who knows of the unhealthy effects of the crowded tenements, who looks into the future and sees the twenty-story block not as an isolated tower but as one of a legion that uniformly fills up all space over a large area, or who comes in daily contact with the squalor and ugliness of the surroundings of the steel mill, cannot limit his vision to the passing picture of the moment. If he attempts to portray it truthfully his knowledge of what lies beneath must influence his work; he cannot put his soul into the work unless he sees the soul within and behind the form he wishes to depict. . . . It is only when we realize these necessary relations between the economic and social and the artistic that we can look at the problem of New York and its high buildings in the proper perspective.

When we do this we will have to accept the skyscraper as inevitable and proceed to consider how it can be made healthy and beautiful. Conditions of health can only be secured by preserving ample open space around high buildings so that there shall be ample light, air, and sun penetrating every part; and that high buildings can be made beautiful needs no demonstration. . . . If, as I take it, the high-storied building must be the prevailing type of the future on the Manhattan part of New York, the question which the civic rulers of that city have to consider ceases to be how to avoid the skyscraper,

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but how to limit and control it in accordance with a scheme of development for the whole city. [*Town Planning Review, Vol. II,* 1911-12, *Liverpool, England.*]

Alternatives which presented themselves were, first, to let the craze for high buildings continue unchecked and produce intensive congestion, and, second, to call a halt to high building and limit heights to ten or fifteen stories. It appeared to me that neither of these things was desirable or practical. The first would end in waste and confusion, and the second would meet uncompromising opposition and not prevent disorderly development. Control of use and density or area of occupancy must accompany control of heights, and be effected by an orderly and comprehensive plan of development. The skyscraper has to be dealt with as an established institution of New York, and it should be adjusted to the scale of the streets and provided with spacious surroundings. It should be considered along with the suburban cottage set in its pleasant garden in any adequate conception of regional or city planning.

It seemed to me, when I first looked into the problems of New York, that a great deal too much had been made of the argument that the overcrowding of Manhattan was due to the difficulty of spreading the city across the Hudson and East Rivers. More ample opportunity to study the city and its environs has not changed my view that there is ample space and facility for extension around New York, that the physical difficulties of expansion are due more to wrong directions of artificial growth than to natural obstruction, and that compact horizontal development produces better facilities for the conduct of business as well as more stable property values and growth in a restricted area. It seemed to me also that much of the high cost of land which was one of the causes of high building, as well as an effect, lay at the root of much of the unnecessary congestion.

In 1911 Lawrence Veiller said, referring to New York:

> In no other city is the mass of the working population housed as it is in New York—in tall tenement houses, extending up into the air 50 or 60 feet, and stretching for miles in every direction as far as the eye can reach. In no other city are there the same appalling conditions with regard to light and air in the homes of the poor. In no other city is there so great congestion and overcrowding.

Then the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population gave figures to show that in 1910 about one-thirteenth of the city's population, namely 370,000, were living at a density of 600 to the acre. The block density in the lower part of the Bronx and in Brooklyn was 414 to 600 per acre. The Commission showed that in the most densely populated parts of Paris and London the maximum density per acre was 434 and 365 respectively. There has been little if any improvement in the last fourteen years. Here is a problem which alone presents almost overwhelming difficulties. Whatever hope we might have that relief of overcrowded housing conditions can be obtained by means of decentralization, it is futile to ignore the fact that millions of people will continue to want to live in Manhattan. It is also to be borne in mind that a great deal of overcrowding is due to bad design and arrangement of buildings and that, as we have to consider the ideal of the town-country impossible of attainment, the present population on Manhattan could be housed in comparatively healthful conditions. No regional plan can be complete which does not include suggestions to deal with this problem of housing in congested areas.

From the housing question and its relation to the regional plan, one naturally turns to find reasons why there is so much concentration of business, particularly of manufacturing, in Manhattan. It is difficult to understand why so much concentration continues in spite of the high costs which are caused to manufacturers who continue to maintain their works in congested areas. Perhaps the economic advantages of removal to more spacious sites are not sufficiently great to make up for the disadvantages of building up a new population of workers and developing housing and transportation facilities in new neighborhoods. Perhaps some organized effort is needed to give manufacturers the facilities they cannot obtain for themselves so as to promote wider distribution of factories and population and proper control of the expansion of the city.

But many industries must remain in Manhattan. The mercantile industries that center around the port, the works that supply local needs, the great banking and insurance offices, the great department stores that have more employes than many factories, will continue to do business in Manhattan. Some of these can aid in solving the problem of decentralization by promoting schemes of improvement of housing conditions for their workers in Manhattan. Many people who live outside of Manhattan should live in it, as well as vice versa. Congestion of means of transit is due to people living too far from their work—and can be solved by bringing employes nearer to places of work in the central areas as well as by dispersing industries to rural areas that can be more economically carried on outside the city.

The problems of movement in the streets and on the transit lines arouse most public interest because the effects of congestion of ways of travel are more apparent to the superficial observer than the effects of overcrowded business and residential use of buildings. But congested streets and transit lines are based on congested use of land for industry, business and residence—and on the lack of balance and scale in the development of buildings in relation to the open space surrounding them.

In this article I have endeavored to present a brief consideration of the ideals we should have in mind in planning and building cities, of the need of making cities beautiful so as to stimulate, not pride, but love of the city we live in, of some of the fundamental problems that face us in planning New York. On another occasion I must return to the further consideration of the scope and purposes of the Regional Plan of New York.

THOMAS ADAMS

What's "Character-Building"?

IT is common in the discussion of social agencies in any community to classify them as "charitable" and "character-building". This assumes implicitly, at least, that one set has nothing whatever to do with character, while the other holds a monopoly in this field of human interests. But a growing number of people are coming to doubt and even to challenge this division as arbitrary, untrue to the facts and positively confusing. One purpose of the social-work institute held recently in Emporia under the auspices of the Kansas Council of State-Wide Agencies was to make possible some collective thinking about this difficult problem.

At the first session three speakers from different walks of life—a clergyman, a teacher and a social worker—opened the discussion of what is meant by character and character-

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building. One of them defined character as "the sum and coordination of our habits." Another pointed out the importance of realizing that no one's character is fixed, but is constantly changing. All agreed that the task of character-building is one of learning to control natural processes, not a matter of magic.

In succeeding sessions three groups of agencies were passed in review—those which work with groups, such as Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls and the Christian associations; those which work with individuals, such as family welfare societies, juvenile courts, public health nurses and visiting teachers; those which are frequently neglected in the enumeration of "social agencies" such as churches, schools, civic associations and clubs. There seemed to be no doubt in the minds of those present that each of these may and frequently does play an important role in the development of character. It was also agreed that each of these frequently fails or neglects its opportunities.

IN general, it was brought out that group activity contributes to character-building through

Developing capacity for team-work
Developing a sense of social responsibility
Directing energies into socially acceptable channels, and
Offering recognition for tasks successfully performed.

The distinctive contributions of case work were outlined somewhat as follows:

Helping a person to understand himself and his relations to others
Helping others to understand him
Affording him an opportunity to exercise initiative, to plan and carry out programs for himself
Setting tasks which afford an opportunity to achieve success
Transplanting him to social situations in which satisfying adjustments are possible.

Finally there was an expression of skepticism as to the value of the term "character-building." A number of the conferees insisted that this term is so bound up with supposedly fixed standards and with exhortation as a device for maintaining them that it would be wise to make a fresh start in terms of "the development of personality." But in proposing this more objective and more flexible basis of interpretation they urged that it be applied to all three groups of agencies discussed in the two-day institute.

The sessions ended without anyone having "put over" anything; nothing was settled; no resolutions were passed. This was simply an unfinished bit of collective thinking. But it was both stimulating and clarifying to those who participated. Perhaps it may bear some fruit in the further development of social work in Kansas.

STUART A. QUEEN

The Small Town Community Chest: Will It Last?

THE remarkable growth of the community chest plan and its adoption by so many of our cities challenges us to consider very carefully its foundations and its chances for permanency. It is to be feared that in the smaller cities in particular, business men look upon it simply as a relief from a succession of financial campaigns, and the social agencies as an easy method of financing their activities. As these smaller cities have a relatively small number of trained social workers there is an absence of trained thought to contribute information and leadership to the real objective of central financing—making it possible to build a community program with definite objectives.

Is it not true, if central financing is to be permanently established, that it must advance in accord with central planning? Are we not "killing the goose" by using our best thought and effort in perfecting our financial organizations without due consideration of where all our social work is headed? Why raise thousands of dollars this year if for each successive year we must do the same with no visible tokens, in the community sense, that it has been money well spent? How can we establish a just ratio between finance and community betterment? If our chest is to be permanent, how can we substitute for the sentimental appeal which is now largely responsible for the financial returns, a calm understanding of the reason, need and individual responsibility for social-welfare effort?

These questions are constantly arising in the smaller cities where chests have been hastily organized as a convenience or because it had seemed the proper thing to do. Possibly the time is not far distant in many of these cities when it may be necessary to call a halt on all chest activities until both public and agency are thoroughly aroused to the meaning of that much abused phrase—co-operation and coordination of social work. If the agencies and the public should revert to a period of unorganized work of independent financing, would it not have a salutary effect which would permit of the rebuilding upon a firm foundation of mutual understanding with clearly defined objectives centered upon genuine service to humanity? Soil can be exhausted but by proper rotation of crops brought back to fertility. Are not some of our communities being financially 'cropped out' and in need of a change of policy until they are re-educated to the value of central planning and central financing? Faced with the importance and demands of social work by the stress of financial requirements both public and agency would be forced to give consideration to what it all means, and a definite program thoughtfully and intelligently planned would follow: a program builded upon a better understanding of social work and a recognition of the responsibility and obligation of every citizen to it.

While it is true the problems of social maladjustment are exceedingly heavy in the large cities yet the smaller cities have a corresponding load which, because they lack the proper machinery to handle it, appears to be even more serious. These problems cannot be adequately handled even with ample finance unless public and social agency are moving together along a clearly defined course. Certainly this requires trained and experienced leadership backed by a broad vision.

Should not the great national agencies whose branches extend to the smaller communities divert some of their energy from competitive organization to community development, realizing that as the thought of the community is directed toward a social view point, their own interests would be advanced? Incidentally, the national agency may thus find the answer to the mooted question of local support to national organizations.

How many of our workers, lay or professional, look beyond the confines of their own organization and recognize that success in terms of finance or activities depends upon a rounded out community program? There is a definite call in these cities for social leadership which can think in community terms; given such leadership there can be no question as to the permanency of a community chest.

EDWARD M. BENSON

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LET THERE BE LIGHT

Books in Our Alcove

Edited by Joseph K. Hart

Sin, Salvation and Sociology

SIN is the most engaging theme for writers, especially for novelists and sociologists. With sociologists it becomes social sin. But sin was once the exclusive field of the theological metaphysician. Even now when anyone talks about sin he tends to become theological and metaphysical. The sociologist does not escape this fate. He denounces metaphysics—to begin with—and then turns metaphysician. This makes his books both interesting and irritating. He struggles valiantly with facts—until they overwhelm him. Then he gives up and turns metaphysician, as is natural. He retreats into his ordinary humanity and looks for a way out; or he finds some bizarre suggestion that helps him cover his retreat. He reveals himself, in these ways, as a man of like passions with ourselves.

This self-revealment shows first in a sort of premonitory world-weariness. Many of our social scientists are like Emerson's Sphynx: they have broded much upon the world—and they are tired. Through all their writings runs a minor strain: "We who are weary of sin!"

They may well be weary. The natural sciences—even if we date their beginnings no further back than 1620, when Francis Bacon published his declaration of independence from medievalism—are three hundred years old, and what have they accomplished? The over-population of the globe; giant electric power combines; poison gas; synthetic gin; and anti-evolutionism! Should we be surprised that some of our social scientists, standing as they do much in the relative position of Bacon with respect to the development of their own sciences, and facing, not merely three centuries, but more likely thirty, should feel the burden too great for them, and should surrender to a probably unconscious pessimism? Intellectual fatigue is a normal phenomenon of our times.

But an interesting aspect of the current world-weariness is that the younger and middle-aged students feel it most. This, too, is intelligible. The ideals of the young are high; their eyes are keen for facts; and the distance from the sordid present, with its hang-overs of war-passions (as they see it), to the ideal and scientific future (as they envisage it) is very great. They want short cuts. They see the far-off future shining like a delayed sun-rise behind the eastern hills; and they fear that, even though they give their years to the task of helping to bring in the day, it will be but little nearer fifty years hence. They see their more plodding fellows playing the part of Chanticleer—crowing with all their might for the sun to come up, and believing that their crowing helps to bring it up. They are tired of such "metaphysical and rhetorical idealists," such "intuitive and enthusiastic social reformers." They want "cold, hard realities." They do not easily find what they seek. So, they become weary too early. But weariness is scarcely the mood of science—not to mention moods of youth.

THESE reflections have been stirred up by the appearance of a book in this field, The History and Prospects of the Social Sciences, a symposium by ten more or less well-known teachers of those subjects. Not all the contributors to the volume are weary of the world and of thinking. Many striking differences of outlook appear from chapter to chapter. It may be said, in general, that the more mature the writer, the less weary of the world is he and, therefore, the more fundamentally scientific is his contribution. This may also—when one thinks of it—be natural: If science is to save the world, then the older the scientist grows the more completely scientific he should be found to be. (If this be treason to youth, it may still be loyalty to science!)

The editor of the volume under consideration, Professor Harry Elmer Barnes, who is one of the younger contributors, appears most completely thought-weary. He has written both the Introduction and the chapter on History. In each of these he shows a world much in need of salvation,

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and Science as the savior. But the Science he has in mind is in a hurry, anxious to get its job done and to enter into its rest. He first reads all "chanticleer" social scientists and social practitioners out of the congregation, and then he sets forth the real task of salvation: "the intelligently conceived, gradual and comparatively safe transformation of social life" into "better and saner types of conduct." In short, we must waste no more time listening for the cock to crow in the morning; our job is to get out and get the sun up! It's a stirring proposition—for a cold morning!

In spite of its dulness, such a program implies a certain adventurousness: it calls for thinking, planning, choosing—enough to get anyone up in the morning. But Professor Barnes will have none of these. Thinking, planning, choosing are ancient superstitions. In his introduction, he writes: "There is not the slightest iota of choice allowed to any individual in any act or thought from birth to the grave." And in his chapter on History, he writes: "Conduct is, in a psychological sense, strictly determined, there being no place in modern psychology for the old metaphysical doctrine of free-will."

BUT, if there can be no choosing, how can thinking take place? Is not thinking—at one of its stages—a process of choosing among competing proposals? If there is no freedom of conduct, how can we plan anything—like, for example, "better and saner types of conduct"—for does not planning imply the selection of this better plan, and the rejeciton of that worse one? And, if all choosing, planning and thinking are ruled out, what becomes of "science"? Obviously under such circumstances science becomes merely one more competing type of stimulation in the experience-drift of the racial ages—and the best that can be hoped for is that it may, eventually, come to the top and become dominant. But—is any such experience-drift rightly to be called "science"? If everything in the universe is a pre-determined link in an unbreakable chain of "cause and effect," on what ground can invidious distinctions be set up between links: why is one such inescapable link to be called "scientific," another labelled "unscientific"?

It is here that Professor Barnes' academic connections and prejudices come to his rescue. First, he accepts, uncritically, the dogma of one school of academic psychologists and, with them, rules out all possibility of deliberate, creative intention on the part of the individual. Now, it is true that "free will" has been outlawed from certain academic psychologies; but when Professor Barnes assumes that that proves that freedom is gone from human conduct, he, it would seem, ceases to be a scientist, and becomes what he, apparently, most hates, namely, a metaphysician: he lugs in through a back window the metaphysics he but just now so ostentatiously threw out the front door.

But, second, science is not for him "one more competing type of stimulation in the experience-drift." "Science" is something that has achieved a distinctive status of its own —which sets it off from the general run of experiences. The physical sciences, he argues, quoting some rather sweeping generalizations of President Walter Dill Scott, of Northwestern University, have achieved superior standing—an institutional status—from which they may fairly claim the right to tell the world what's what—in the realm of nature!

The social sciences must achieve a similar status. It is altogether wrong, thinks Professor Barnes, that the "social sciences which alone can serve to guide man" through these bewildering times should have to fight for their very existence. Humanity, he believes, will never escape from sin into salvation until the "organized social sciences" are listened to with the respect now accorded the physical sciences. When this status has been achieved, the pronouncements of the social scientists, from the campus and the research stations, will be Science—which anyone may ignore at his peril. So, in a fortuitous fashion, without the employment of thinking, or planning, or choosing, Social Science will have come into existence, and will have found itself; it will have the institutional status now enjoyed by the physical sciences; and, in determining and guiding the destiny of the race and the age, the university will have recovered its ancient position: namely, the position it held when medieval theology ruled the minds of men.

THAT is to say, the social science of Professor Barnes is too weary to face with tranquility the long task of winning its way in the world by demonstrating the place of intelligence in common affairs; by helping men and women and children learn how to plan and choose and think; and by releasing the intelligence that is now being ignored in areas far removed from the campus and the laboratory. Campus Social Science wants to play the game of the ancient *deus ex machina*: it wants to descend, upon crucial occasions, from its Platonic heights, and deliver the saving, statistical message of "truth" to an awe-struck world.

From these same Platonic heights, this campus Social Science is willing to do one thing more. It is willing to give specifications for a "new environment." Humanity cannot be changed—by any sort of taking thought. But the environment can be changed; and when men find themselves in contact with this changed environment, *something* is bound to happen *to* them or *in* them. Here we are on surer grounds. Something has already happened. Our environments have been greatly changed through the ages: for example, from the primitive cave-dwelling to the New York city apartment. Have not men changed correspondingly? They have, indeed, as Professor Barnes points out: instead of being "cave men" in caves, we have become "cave men in the city." If that fact does not prove what change of environment can do for us, and the uselessness of thinking, planning or choosing—then what does it prove?

Two other writers in the volume, Professor Howard Parshley, dealing with Biology, and Professor Robert Givler, dealing with Ethics, follow Professor Barnes' lead. They agree that "The well-being of the physiological organism is the final criterion of whatever is ethically valuable." Ethics is thus completely grounded.

But the other writers demonstrate varying degrees of escape from this metaphysical absorption in fragmentary laboratory products. Kimball Young's chapter on Social Psychology; Frank H. Hankins' chapter on Sociology; Karl W. Bigelow's discussion of Economics; and Walter J. Shepard's chapter on Political Science—all give evidence that these writers are still not averse to having the "mind" of man play some part in the making of the world—as well as in the writing of books. And the chapters by Goldenweiser, on Cultural Anthropology, and Pound, on Jurisprudence, are brilliant contributions to the understanding of their own fields and to the understanding of the common field.

THE HISTORY AND PROSPECTS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES, *Edited by Harry Elmer Barnes. Alfred A. Knopf. 534 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Experience and Nature

A Running Interpretation of John Dewey's Masterpiece

III. What Is Nature?

OUR minds are easily influenced by words and phrases. We all have opinions which we call "our very own," but which were really given to us by parents, teachers, friends, or favorite books. Words and phrases lead us, hold us, whip us, frighten us; they build us up, mold us, tear us to pieces, destroy us, help us to shape our ultimate social and mental patterns. Words with such powers are many.

Nature is one of them. In recent centuries *Nature* has become one of the most tyrannical of words. It affects everybody—but not all in the same way. To the scientist, Nature is the domain of rigorous law. To him the phrase, "laws of nature," means something rigid, irrevocable, eternal. A "law of nature" is something like a steel cable that binds the universe together: if the law should break, the universe would fly to pieces.

To others, *Nature* means all that is romantic: the woods in spring; moonlight on the river; lofty mountains covered with pine forests; June nights and soft music across still waters. They like to break off "bits of nature" to take back to their dull apartments. And to become "wholly natural" is to them an idyllic, though hopeless, dream.

Can Nature be at once the domain of rigorous laws and the realm of romance? What, then, is Nature?

WELL, Nature has a long history. To primitive minds, it is personal: it helps some men and hinders others. To the modern scientist, it is absolutely impersonal: it assists none, it hinders none. It can be used—by those who understand its uses. It has no moral leanings: it responds to "bad" men and "good" men, equally—provided they have equal technics of control. Between these two attitudes lies most of human history—including the story of the escape of the mind from primitive tyranny into whatever "scientific freedom" means—this is the most important single thread in the tangled skein of history.

So, *Nature* has come to be the means of getting things done. Some things we want done are colossal, like feeding and clothing the nation. For such a purpose, Nature must be subdued, controlled, organized: it must be made to produce goods, transport those goods, and distribute them regularly, continuously, efficiently. Under such circumstances, Nature must take on the orderliness of a railroad time-table. But, we also want other things, like joy, release, freedom. For these things, Nature must not be too greatly organized. It must be full of unanticipated moments, unsuspected vistas, mysteries, allurements. This makes Nature "human," erratic, lawless: it becomes romantic; it embodies "pathetic fallacies"; it rejoices and suffers with us.

It was long assumed that man was external to Nature—made of different stuff—set over against the world—forever at war with Nature. But science and philosophy both attest, more and more, that man has a *natural history:* he bears in his body and his mind the marks of the cosmic processes out of which have come the world and all that is in the world. He has been

> . . heated hot with burning fears,
> And dipped in baths of hissing tears,
> And battered with the shocks of doom,
> To shape and use.

Man is Nature—as much as are woods and winds and waters. But he is Nature coming to awareness of its own meanings and uses. He is Nature passing creative judgment upon its own processes, selecting this, rejecting that, and making itself over nearer to its own desires and needs.

These processes of making over culminate in those shapings which we call art. For Nature is both means—that is, materials for use—and ends—that is, human hopes and happiness. But Nature as materials is always subject to discredit: it is "base matter"; and Nature as ends is ever precarious: our "hopes and happiness" slip through our fingers and are gone. But Nature culminating in the forms of art is the complete merging of means and ends: it is material that has been absorbed by meaning; it is meaning come to full expression, "with the wonder of the new and the grace of the gratuitous."

Of course, art, in this sense, cannot become the object of the collector. For art is in the shaping, not in the thing shaped. Collectors may carry away the finished things. But art must go forward with its shapings and creatings, until something of this creative mood becomes the unquestioned birth-right of all human beings.

Thus, Nature is not a final order of the world, which must be accepted "as given." Nature is the unfinished business of existence—whether we regard it as material means, or as ideal ends. Looked at from one point of view, Nature is the scene of our human exploits, the materials by means of which we live and work out our unsuspected lives, express ourselves and finally transcend our materials and become creative artists of life. From an equally real point of view, Nature is human life emerging from its primitive fears and degradations and achieving freedom by its growing understanding and intelligent acceptance of its materials.

NATURE, in either case, is not the fearsome thing the primitive mind envisaged, nor is it the rigorous affair that modern science sometimes depicts. "The 'laws of nature' are not discovered in Nature," says Darwin; "they are selected sequences which we find practically useful in understanding and in controlling the conditions under which we live." Such a Nature is not above either criticism or reconstruction: it is something to use, to master, and to control. When man appeared upon the earth, he appeared in the midst of a precarious scene. Nature is never stable. Cosmic creation still goes on. Shall not man take a hand in this creation, and introduce into it those more carefully discriminated aims and methods which are implied in "mind"? Shall not man's hopes and aspirations become the

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ends toward which Nature shall be directed? Shall not Science become—not knowledge passively contemplative of a finished universe which God, the creative artist, has stowed in his museum among his treasures—but just the refinement of creative processes out of which will come a Nature more adequate to our human needs?

So, Nature is not something outside and unrelated to men. In Nature we find both lawlessness and room for laws; romance and presage of evil; primitive forces that help the "good" and hinder the "bad," and vice versa; and moments of beauty which show us what human life might be if we could find how to make those moments permanently real. It is involved in life, and life is involved in it; and evolution is that infinite complex of processes out of the workings of which may emerge, age by age, if those processes become artistically intelligent enough, an ever finer human living, and a Nature which will both foster and accept that finer expression of itself.

EXPERIENCE AND NATURE, *by John Dewey. Open Court Publishing Co. 443 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Competition in Oil

THE OIL INDUSTRY AND THE COMPETITIVE SYSTEM, *by George Ward Stocking. Houghton Mifflin Company. 323 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROFESSOR STOCKING'S study of the oil industry in relation to the competitive system is an example of the effectiveness of recent economic research methods. These economists find their point of attack in current business practices, and by so doing they avoid the vagueness of classical economics and come rapidly to grips with concrete problems.

This analysis of the competitive system brushes generalities aside. It admits that "competition is the life of trade." But the author has a number of disquieting reservations concerning the social utility of trade under the aegis of competition. Is competition one of the ultimate values, a part of the business man's metaphysics? If it is, Professor Stocking removes such metaphysicians as the secretary of the chamber of commerce and the corner Rotarian without due respect to their philosophic attainments. But whatever the degree of ultimateness about competition, it is "the life of trade," and trade is business, and business is business. There seems to be no gainsaying that. It looks like a harmless bit of Neanderthalian logic. But the author insists upon testing the principle, "business is business," by a more advanced dialectic. He even intimates that it is a pretty case of begging the question. Then he goes diving about for synonyms and comes up with "robbery" and "exploitation." Shades of Adam Smith! What association of ideas does bring forth! If the business men of the competitive system were psychoanalysts, they would retort: "Psychosis!" "Sex complex!" But since they are not, they won't. Even from the orthodox economists he will probably receive no worse epithet than, "Damned heretic." The oil business is competitive, and from the viewpoint of society it is little short of robbery. That is the general conclusion of the book.

But there is ample detail to support the general conclusion. Indeed what makes the book important is not that it is a jocose triffling with one of the eternal verities of Americanism, but that it is an analysis of the competitive system as it is exhibited in a particular industry. It is even more specific: on account of its prominence from the very beginning of the oil industry in the United States, the Standard Oil Company furnishes most of the data. Back in the seventies and eighties Mr. William Rockefeller began his efforts to eliminate competition from the oil industry by securing a monopoly. He was not so much interested in production of raw oil as in the transportation, refining and marketing of oil. Federal and state legislation with respect to the oil industry have been directed toward the preservation of competition, and this fact has brought the Standard into the courts frequently. Formal dissolution of the Standard of New Jersey occurred in 1911, but Professor Stocking points out that effective dissolution did not occur. However, under the force of changing economic adjustments the Standard group seems to be crumbling from within now.

But the more competition is safeguarded, the more the public suffers. Competition leads to duplication of wells, duplication of equipment, duplication of transportation facilities, duplication of refining equipment and duplication of overhead expenses. It is responsible for the prodigal waste of gas which should be used to force oil out and to provide fuel. Hasty drilling is often the occasion of ruining good, producing wells through the shift of underground water, or the hole is drilled at a point in the geological structure which frees the gas without forcing out the oil. All of the concrete facts which are piled up through three hundred pages leads to the general conclusion that "Competition in the petroleum industry works at cross-purposes with the economical exploitation and utilization of petroleum." This becomes serious, when one considers the abundant evidence brought forward to show that production may have already reached its apex and be on the decline.

R. CLYDE WHITE

College Station, Texas.

Production and Profits

PROFITS, *by William Trufant Foster and Waddill Catchings. Houghton, Mifflin and Company. 486 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN this trenchantly written volume, the authors of Money attempt to solve the central paradox of our economic order. This is the problem why businesses are periodically closed down and workers thrown out of employment. The common explanation is of course that there is little "demand" for the goods produced. Yet since shoe-makers need clothes and tailors need shoes, why should not each produce and exchange with the other? Under a barter economy they would do so and, as the orthodox economists have told us, the production of goods would constitute the demand for goods. But under a money and credit economy, tailors, shoe makers and other craftsmen periodically find this impossible. They need and desire each other's products but they lack the effective purchasing power with which to pay for them. In consequence both lie idle and their families suffer from the lack of both shoes and clothes. There is no more important problem in economics than to discover the causes for this periodical breakdown in production and the authors have shown a keen appreciation of relative values in attacking it.

Their essential thesis is that modern saving results in an increase of machinery and business equipment which in turn enables industry to turn out a much larger physical volume of consumption goods. But this increased output is sold for money. The supply of money and credit in turn is limited because of the fact that bank credit can only be expanded up to a certain maximum upon a given gold base. As the volume of physical goods increases, there comes a time when the supply of money can not increase correspond-

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ingly. In order that the full volume of the goods may be sold, therefore, the price per unit must decrease and with it the general price level.

But this is disastrous to business, carried on as it is under the stimulus of profits. Raw materials, for example, have been purchased some months earlier at a higher price level and must now be disposed of in finished commodities at a lower price level. Moreover fixed interest charges upon previous borrowings which are made at a higher price level come to form a larger pecentage of the costs. Profit margins thus shrink rapidly and losses accumulate. Businesses consequently curtail production and lay off part of their working force. But since this reduces consumers' purchasing power, it leads to a still further decrease in production and employment. Thus depression once started becomes cumulatively worse.

The initial cause is, however, the inability of the producers to dispose of an increasing volume of goods at the same price level. A minor strand in the theory, which the authors however do not stress as strongly as does Hudson B. Hastings in his Costs and Profit, is the alleged failure of corporations to disburse as much purchasing power to the consumers as they have taken from them. More evidence is presented upon this point but it is not given major emphasis.

The theory which Foster and Catchings have presented is far sounder than the over-saving theory which John A. Hobson has recently advanced once more in his Economics of Unemployment. Hobson not only failed to analyze what he meant by "over-saving" but failed to recognize the fact that saving gives employment to labor just as much as does spending. Foster and Catchings clearly recognize this fallacy but point out that saving does cause more goods to be produced. These can be purchased by the consumers but only at a lower price level. It is not inability to consume which causes the trouble, but inability to consume at the same price level.

This stimulating theory provokes many questions, of which these are only examples:

Have there actually been such increases in the past in the volume of consumers' goods before the periods of business depression?

To what extent does the lessened efficiency of labor during the latter part of the prosperity phase of the business cycle counterbalance the increased efficiency of the capital with which men work?

If the analysis is correct, it would seem that the most effective preventive of business depressions would be the issuance of such a supply of money and credit as, reaching the consumer, would prevent the price-level from falling.

PAUL H. DOUGLAS

University of Chicago.

Rural Attitudes

OUR RURAL HERITAGE, *by James Mickel Williams. Alfred A. Knopf. 246 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROFESSOR JAMES MICKEL WILLIAMS here makes a significant move in the direction of a functional rural sociology. While his work is mainly historical, descriptive and classificatory—only incidently analytical and interpretative—the chief merit of the book lies in his adoption of "attitudes" as the central working category.

He has searched available primary sources in New York state such as the newspapers, church records, town meeting records, census records, for attitudes of farmers during the two earliest periods in American history. These attitudes he classifies in a Spencerian manner using the customary names of social institutions: family, sex, religion, education, politics, justice and the like. Documentation from primary sources is, however, so very limited that frequently it is difficult to distinguish between record and reconstruction or interpretation.

The first chapters on Methods of Rural Social Psychology and on the Neighborhood and the Community leave much to be desired by way of analysis and definition, so also the last chapters on Society and the Individual and Social Consciousness and Conflict. Thus when he discusses how society affects the individual's attitudes and acquisitiveness, in addition to assertiveness and sociability as found in the early communities and as determining social relationships, one would like a summary of personal attitudes as affected by group attitudes, and how personal attitude-complexes vary according to group attitude-complexes.

DANIEL H. KULP II

Teachers College, New York

It Pays

HEALTH MAINTENANCE IN INDUSTRY, *by J. D. Hackett. A. W. Shaw Co. 488 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE *raison d'être* of the book as well as the general viewpoint of the author on the whole subject may be gathered from the very first paragraph of the preface, which reads as follows:

Chickens, race-horses and circus monkeys are fed, housed, trained and kept up to the highest physical pitch in order to secure a full return from them as producers in their respective functions. The same principle applies to human beings; increased production cannot be expected from workers unless some attention is paid to their physical environment.

True to the sentiment expressed in his preface, the author throughout the book endeavors to convince his readers that it pays to take care of the workers in the factory. This materialistic conception of industrial health is, perhaps, logical in a book written for employment managers and factory foremen; it may prove effective in stirring them to action, or giving them leverage to secure reforms; but it is a limited one.

There is, for example, hardly any mention of the effects upon the health of workers of low wages, long hours, the labor of women and children, despotic management, insecurity of tenure of office and non-employment; subjects which surely have as much bearing on the question of health of the workers as the installation of modern washing and drinking appliances, lockers, etc.

Mr. Hackett treats extensively of industrial hygiene, industrial mortality and morbidity, medical service in industry, occupational diseases, dusts, mental hygiene, medical and surgical treatment, etc. The chapters on medical staffs, emergency hospitals, medical treatment and the organization of medical service, are full and thorough. Mr. Hackett is, of course, right in doubting the efficacy of the score-card for selection of a medical staff, a procedure which physicians themselves would resent very much as reminding them too much of the procedure of scoring dairies and milch-cows. The author adds, "what is needed is a 'man's man' rather than one who is devoted to the scientific aspect of his work alone."

In the chapter on Physical Examination, the author re-

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The Smith College for Social work operates in two successive sessions separated by a period of nine months supervised intensive field work, during which each student is assigned to some social agency and continues her theoretical work under the direction of the School. The School emphasizes the application of modern social psychiatry and the psychiatric point of view in the preparation for case work in psychopathic hospitals, general hospitals, child guidance and child habit clinics, schools, juvenile courts, and other fields of social work.

The class entering July 1926 will be limited to about thirty-five students. Until May 15, five places will be reserved for graduates of Smith College.

A summer course of eight weeks is open to experienced social workers. This course is designed for workers who wish to increase their theoretical knowledge, to study recent developments in the field of social work and to obtain a fresh point of view in regard to problems of personality and possibility of individual adjustment through the application of psychiatry and mental hygiene.

In 1926 twenty students will be received. Until May 15, five places will be reserved for workers in the American Red Cross.

A six weeks course is open to teachers and school deans. This course consists of a special seminar conducted by an experienced school dean, together with lectures, discussions and seminars leading to an understanding of problems of personality and behavior as appearing in schools.

Eight Fellowships of $1,200 each are open to college graduates who have had some experience in social work, scholarships paying part maintenance, and interneships, paying full maintenance are also available.

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THE DIRECTOR

College Hall 8, Northampton, Mass.

THE School's diploma is given upon the completion of six-quarters of professional training of graduate rank, upon which the student may enter at the beginning of any quarter. The *Announcement of Courses* gives further particulars. The Spring Quarter begins March twenty-ninth.

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frains from suggesting specific examination cards, realizing that the physical examination of employes must necessarily differ according to each plant and according to its special needs. Plant managers will likewise find a great many useful hints in the chapter on surgical and first aid treatment and, of course, in the chapters on sanitary facilities, ventilation, lighting, etc. of the shop.

The author claims that he has undertaken to do what he believes has never been done before—treat the subject as a purely managerial problem. In this claim perhaps lies the merit as well as the limitations of the volume before us. The parts devoted to plant hygiene and sanitation, to ventilation, lighting and general sanitation are accurate, up to date, and show that the author is fully conversant with these subjects in which he has had thorough training. This cannot be said of the parts treating occupational diseases, industrial poisons, gases and fumes, and other technical matters outside his experience as manager of the labor department of a large industrial company and as engineer. Some of the statistical data quoted are rather of ancient origin and could well be replaced by results of modern research. As an original contribution, I feel the book would have gained much had the author limited himself to his domain of plant hygiene and sanitation, instead of producing a bulky volume treating more superficially of many subjects which fall in the fields of industrial medicine and hygiene.

Nonetheless, there has hitherto been no practical reference book for managers covering this whole range. Mr. Hackett has undertaken to fill a want; later editions may round our and refine his present materials; and as they stand, his is an excellent compilation of existing treatises and text books, is written in a simple, clear language, and a perusal of it will certainly be of great benefit to all those who have charge of factory welfare departments and to managers of industrial plants.

GEORGE M. PRICE, M.D.

Waste and Human Waywardness

THE TRAGEDY OF WASTE, *by Stuart Chase. The Macmillan Company. 296 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. CHASE has achieved the difficult task of breathing life into the dry bones of waste. His vivid pictures of waste in action make easy reading, and his metaphors, such as "the magazine cover mechanic," and women "using the cigarette as an article of dress," give the sense that he found pleasure in his ponderous task. One hopes that his vivid picture may puncture the complacency of some of the "illth"-mongers.

Mr. Chase forcefully summarizes the situation:

> An aeroplane view of America would disclose a very large fraction of the available manpower workless on any given working day; would disclose another large fraction making and distributing things which are of no real use to anybody; and a third fraction taking two hours to do a job which engineers have found can be done in one—and which some men are actually doing in one. And equipped with a sort of earth crust X-ray, the observer would see water invading the oil sands, the mountain coming in on the coal measures; and above ground, the gusher giving its gas to the air, and its oil to surrounding landscape, the rush of millions of horsepower down unyoked rivers, the glare of forest fires, the refuse piles charged with unclaimed chemical riches.

It is inspiring and at the same time depressing to think of an orderly world such as would be the result of profiting

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by Mr. Chase's admonitions. If perchance the "orderly procession" of the world "through the bathroom" could be achieved, I am inclined to think the world might have as little enthusiasm for its daily dozen as children for their morning baths. After all, the vast waste which Mr. Chase describes furnishes much of the incentive and color to those of us who spend our lives in industry.

To appreciate the Tragedy of Waste as Mr. Chase describes it, one has only to recall how easy it is to let the milkman leave the same amount of milk each day, and how impossible it would be to buy the same amount each day, knowing that there was milk standing in the ice box. Think of the number of people who, on one pretext or another, pay from several hundred to several thousand a year for an automobile, and yet, without the car, hesitate over the expense of a taxi fare.

The Tragedy of Waste lies in the shortsightedness of human nature. What hope there is lies in an attack on specific cases of waste, for in general terms, it is like death, never fairly faced until too late.

JOHN H. WILLIAMS
Member of Secretary Hoover's Committee on Waste

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Health

THE MINISTRY OF HEALTH, *by Sir Arthur Newsholme, M.D. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 265 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AT A TIME when the possible coordination of federal health services is under discussion in this country, there is special timeliness in this story of British experience, written by the Principal Medical Officer of the Local Government Board of England and Wales, which was merged in 1919 in the Ministry of Health. The author outlines the history of the administration of public health services in his country, including the various forms of health and social insurance. In particular he stresses the importance of properly qualified, properly salaried officials. "Both in factory work and in general public health work," he declares, "improvement has been secured largely through the work of paid officials possessing special knowledge, whose reports have shed the necessary light on sanitary and social evils, and have impelled legislative and administrative control . . . . the general welfare of the community is more dependent on the prompt and efficient treatment of disease, on its prevention, and on the enhancement of the general standard of health secured by measures of public health and personal hygiene, than on any other conditions."

HEALTH AND GOOD CITIZENSHIP, *by J. Mace Andress and W. A. Evans. Ginn & Co. 376 pp. Price 96c postpaid of The Survey.*

PRIMER OF HYGIENE, *by John W. Ritchie and Joseph S. Caldwell. World Book Co. 184 pp. Price 80c postpaid of The Survey.*

PRIMER OF SANITATION, *by John W. Ritchie. World Book Co. 231 pp. Price 84c postpaid of The Survey.*

PRIMER OF PHYSIOLOGY, *by John W. Ritchie. World Book Co. 276 pp. Price 88c postpaid of The Survey.*

DRAMATIZING CHILD HEALTH, *by Grace T. Hallock. American Child Health Assn. 306 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

COLDS, CAUSE, TREATMENT AND PREVENTION, *by Russell L. Cecil. D. Appleton & Co. 111 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE ESSENTIALS OF HEALTHFUL LIVING, *by William S. Sadler. The Macmillan Co. 481 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

A HANDBOOK OF THE OUTDOORS, *by Earle Amos Brooks. George H. Doran Co. 238 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CONQUEST OF CANCER, *by H. W. S. Wright. E. P. Dutton & Co. 82 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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OF

PROFITS

A Book by WILLIAM TRUFANT FOSTER *and* WADDILL CATCHINGS

(Authors of "MONEY")

The contest is open to everyone, everywhere. It is not necessary to buy the book in order to enter the contest. Criticisms must be sent to the Pollak Foundation before January 1, 1927.

The Judges are: OWEN D. YOUNG, *Chairman of the Board of Directors of the General Electric Company;* ALLYN A. YOUNG, *of Harvard University, President of the American Economic Association;* WESLEY C. MITCHELL, *of Columbia University, Director of Research, National Bureau of Economic Research.*

A review of "Profits" appears in this issue of *The Survey.*

465 pages. 61 illustrations. $4.00 postpaid.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

"NO ARGUMENT is necessary to convince reasonable people of the need for cooperation and coordination among the 1200 social agencies in the city of New York," said Robert W. deForest, president of the Welfare Council of New York city at the recent meeting of its board of directors. To find a way of meeting this need without disturbing the integrity and independence of any of those 1200 agencies, which represent every type of social endeavor, carried on by groups of varied nationalities and religious faiths, is a complex task. The board, which has decided that one of its chief functions is to act as a fact-finding agency to help in the collection of data on which future social planning can be based, has appointed two committees to embark on this task. The first, including Thomas J. Riley of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, Solomon Lowenstein of the Federation of Jewish Philanthropic Societies, and Father Robert F. Keegan of the Catholic Charities, will consult with the social agencies which are now engaged in providing information concerning the social resources of the city to determine whether the present information services are adequate and whether future assistance on the part of the Council is desirable in this field. A second committee, including Henry J. Fisher of the United Hospital Fund, George Hecht of Better Times and Dr. Linsly R. Williams of the New York Academy of Medicine, will talk with representatives of the social agencies to find out whether or not any of them desire to carry on their work in joint offices, thus making more effective common service possible.

I. Edwin Goldwasser of the Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies has been elected to the board of directors of the Welfare Council, and Solomon Lowenstein to its executive committee.

BEGINNING with the new year, the Children's Village at Dobbs Ferry, N. Y. will receive problem girls (but not sex offenders) committed by the courts or sent to the institution as private charges. At present only boys are admitted.

THE BOARD of Managers of the Manhattanville Association, Inc., has announced the re-opening of its day and night shelter at 71 Old Broadway, New York City.

ADELE SCHOENFELD has succeeded Beatrice Womser as director of Hamilton House in New York City.

DR. WILLIAM H. FRENCH, director of the Fargo (North Dakota) Child Health Demonstration, has been appointed director of the Commonwealth Fund Child Health Demonstration in Austria, and finished his work in Fargo the end of October. Dr. William DeKleine, who is in charge of the demonstration at Mansfield, Ohio, will go to Fargo to succeed Dr. French on February 1, when the Mansfield work comes to an end, and in the interim, Dr. Lester J. Evans, director of medical service in the Fargo Demonstration, is serving as acting director.

THE RESIGNATION of Otto W. Davis as executive secretary of the Council of Social Agencies of New Haven Conn., and his acceptance of the office of assistant secretary of the Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies is a change of particular interest in the community chest field. At New Haven, where the Council under Mr. Davis' direction has helped to build up a community-wide consciousness of social problems—the year and a half since its city survey of social work was published have seen a number of consolidations and realignments—the force of its work is to be conserved by the appointment of John B. Dawson, secretary of the Associated Charities, to head the Community Chest which, it is suggested, may enter into a merger with the Council.

AN "interracial team" made the circuit of six Illinois cities in November to conduct local conferences under the auspices of preliminary interracial committees which had previously been formed as a result of field work. The team included Reverend Ralph C. McAfee, secretary of the Kansas City Council of Churches; Reverend Ross W. Sanderson, secretary of the Wichita Council of Churches; Franklin O. Nichols, associate educational secretary of the American Social Hygiene Association; and three representatives of the Federal Council's Commission on Race Relations, Reverend Irving K. Merchant, volunteer field representative for Illinois, Will W. Alexander, and George E. Haynes, secretaries of the Commission. Interracial committees which, it is hoped, will be permanent and a program of local activities for better race relations were instituted in each of the cities visited: Danville, Peoria, Evanston, Quincy, Decatur and Champaign.

DR. BLANCHE M. HAINES has been appointed director of the Division of Maternal and Infant Hygiene of the U. S. Children's Bureau and will have immediate direction of the national administration of the maternity and infancy act. For three years Dr. Haines has been director of the Michigan Bureau of Child Hygiene and Public Health.

IT IS the sad duty of Shop Talk to chronicle this month the deaths of Mallie J. Floyd and Emily S. Holmes. Miss Holmes helped to establish Westminster House, the first Buffalo settlement, in September, 1894, and was its head for twenty-four years, until her failing health compelled her to relinquish that position in 1918. Miss Floyd began her active service with the Children's Mission to Children, in Boston, in June, 1911, as a visitor. In January, 1920, she took charge of its placing-out work, and from January, 1923, until her death she filled its responsible office of field director.

THE YOUNG Department of Sociology at the University of Omaha, with only two years behind it, threatens to pass all the standard height and weight tables for children of its age. The number of its classes has been more than doubled; their enrollment has doubled four times. (Is this arithmetic or geometric progressiveness?) L. J. Argetsinger, scout executive of the Boy Scouts of America; Florence McCabe, superintendent of the Visiting Nurses' Association; and F. D. Preston, director of the Omaha Welfare Federation and Community Chest, have been added as lecturers, while Judge L. B. Day, District Judge of Domestic Relations, and Judge Howard Kennedy, chairman of the State Child Labor Commission, are part-time lecturers in social legislation. The Department endeavors to serve the city, and its head, Professor T. Earl Sullenger, is sociological advisor for several of the local social and civic organizations.

CHARLOTTE LAMOND MOHOR, recently with the C.O.S. in New York city, has become director of the Home Economics Department of the United Hebrew Charities.

ALBERT G. FRAZER has resigned as executive secretary of the Philadelphia Travelers Aid Society to become superintendent of the Department of Released Prisoners, of the Pennsylvania Prison Society.

THE STANFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS has brought out a little pamphlet, For International Peace, being a list of writings "in the interest of peace, friendship and understanding between nations", by David Starr Jordan. Dr. Jordan began writings of this sort in 1898 on the outset of the war with Spain; and books, booklets, magazine articles and broadsides have come from his pen, in fair weather or foul, in the quarter century since. Seldom have we had in American life such a record of consistent espousal. Not the least interesting feature is a list—some three and a half pages—of the towns in which he has spoken, ranging from London, Tokyo, Paris, Ghent and The Hague to Auckland and El Paso. Some of the cities stand for dignified and semi-diplomatic gatherings. Others for adventures on the firing line of public opinion when feeling was white hot.

DOROTHY KRONCKE has come from Chicago to be head dietician of the Hospital for Joint Diseases in New York.

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THE FIRST university professor of nursing in any of the higher educational institutions, M. Adelaide Nutting, has retired as professor of nursing education at Teachers' College, Columbia University. Miss Nutting came to Columbia eighteen years ago from the Johns Hopkins School of Nursing. Under her direction her department became one of the largest divisions of professional education in the university. More than two thousand of her former students hold places as directors or teachers in schools of nursing, in the Public Health Service, and allied fields. Miss Nutting sailed recently for Italy to spend the winter.

RUTH CUSHMAN, formerly a member of the staff of the New York Maternity Center Association, has been appointed assistant director of nursing in the Rutherford County Child Health Demonstration at Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

EMILY ROBESON, formerly education director of the Henry Street Visiting Nurse Service, has been appointed director of the St. Louis Visiting Nurse Association.

YADDO, the country estate of the late Mr. and Mrs. Spencer Trask, at Saratoga Springs, New York, opens next June for temporary residence through the summer for a limited number. The plan whereby their home should offer hospitality to creative workers and thereby make its contribution to American arts and letters was formulated by Mr. and Mrs. Trask as early as 1899. Guests will live in the mansion where studios will also be provided for them. The estate, situated as it is in one of the most healthful and scenic regions of the East, will also furnish its guests with that measure of rest and recreation necessary for creative work. The estate and its activities are directed by the Corporation of Yaddo consisting of eleven members; George Foster Peabody is president of the Corporation and Allena Pardee is secretary. An additional advisory board is empowered to select and invite guests. Mrs. John Carroll Ames is the executive director and should be addressed by those interested.

FLORENCE HUGHES is acting as managing director of Florence Baker House in New York in the absence of Elizabeth Bowles, who is on indefinite leave of absence.

MAUDE I. PURNELL has become headworker at the Grosvenor Neighborhood House in New York.

MABEL KAUFMAN WEBB has been appointed director of social service at Polyclinic Hospital, New York City.

REBA HARRIS, for four years the effective crusade director of the Florida Public Health Association, has been made supervisor of health and physical education in the department of public instruction, although her salary is still to be met by the Association. She expects to be with the state department for at least two years, to demonstrate the value of such a position, which ultimately would be supported by state funds, and will have direct supervision of high schools as well as elementary schools.

NEW APPOINTMENTS as visiting teachers include Ettienne Baldwin in New Haven; Dora Taylor, in Miami; and Adeline Jesse, of the Chicago staff, who has gone to Denver to conduct a demonstration which is to be financed jointly by the Denver School Board and the Colorado Chapter of the D. A. R.

S. GERTRUDE BUSH, who has been state instruction nurse in Ohio for the past year, has resigned to become supervisor of the teaching center of the Visiting Nurse Association of Toledo.

DR. EMMA WINSLOW has joined the staff of the Marion County, Oregon, Child Health Demonstration, under the direction of Dr. Walter H. Brown.

LOUISE F. SHIELDS has become associate supervisor of the work among farm and cannery migrants conducted by the Council of Women for Home Missions. Laura H. Parker continues as executive supervisor.

COL. ERNEST BICKNELL of the American Red Cross, with long experience in the direction of its civilian war work in France and Belgium, has been appointed to represent the United States in the League of Nations Commission for Unifying the World's Relief.

MARY S. GARDNER of Providence has come to the N. O. P. H. N. for several months as directing adviser on policies and administrative methods.

HARRY T. BAKER, long with the Y. M. C. A. in New York, has gone to Constantinople as general secretary.

ANN STERLING of Baltimore has been appointed secretary of the Department of Farm and Rural Work of the National Council of Jewish Women.

EDITH J. L. CLAPP has been appointed field secretary of the American Nurses' Association.

THE CHAIRMAN of the special committee of the American Association of Social Workers, which will take charge of the transfer of the Vocational Bureau of that organization to other auspices by January 1, 1927, is Harry Hopkins of the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association. Beginning the first of this year there will be a fee of 2 per cent of the first year's salary for those placed by the Bureau in permanent positions; as formerly, there is no registration fee, and vocational advice and information is given without charge.

WELMA WALKER has gone from the White Williams Foundation in Philadelphia to assist Pauline Fairchild, who is in charge of the Common Welfare Fund of Hutchinson, Kansas, for the third year.

VIRGINIA CAMPBELL has resigned from the Provident Association of Topeka to become secretary of the Associated Charities at Decatur, Illinois.

ON THE NIGHT of the Galveston flood in 1900 Robert L. Neill joined the emergency committees to help care for orphans. So interested did he become in child welfare work through his subsequent association with Loring Brace, that he gave up his business as a cotton broker to enter it professionally. He has just retired after twenty-five years of service with the Children's Aid Society in New York city, during which he has placed nearly 2,000 boys in homes.

THE ASSISTANT DIRECTOR of the child welfare department at Montgomery, Alabama, James L. Sibley, is to go to Liberia to make a year's study of health, social, and educational conditions in that African republic for the General Education Board. He will also report on conditions in Liberia for the Firestone Rubber Company.

MARY L. HICKS started 1926 as executive secretary of the Health Council of the Louisville (Ky.) Community Chest. This Council was formed last year in answer to one of the recommendations made by Dr. Haven Emerson after his health and hospital survey of the city. Two other councils, on recreation, and family child welfare, are being developed under the Community Chest by David C. Liggett, its director. Before going to Louisville Miss Hicks was educational director of the Public Health Federation of Cincinnati.

THE OPENING PAGES of the December bulletin of the Boston Council of Social Agencies carry a lively abstract of the recent report of the Children's Bureau on the family status of breadwinning women, concluding, "Let the social, racial and industrial causes be what they may, the evolution of the modern fireside—up it may be; down it may be—is in full swing." Why then the calm assumption in the item on the last page which tells of the marriage of Marie D. Driscoll, assistant in the Social Service Exchange since 1909, to Charles B. Henry, and concludes sadly, "She passes, therefore, as a staff member of Boston social work?" Don't Boston social workers ever evolute?

MRS. GEORGIA WINANS of the county school department has been re-elected president of the Social Welfare Club of San Jose, California, while Victoria Aitchison of the Good Cheer Health Center is its new secretary.

I. IRVING LIPSITCH left San Francisco November 1 to become executive director of the Los Angeles Federation of Jewish Welfare Organizations, in place of Boris D. Bogen, who has gone to Cincinnati as secretary of the Independent Order of B'nai B'rith.

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COMMUNICATIONS

Smallpox and Vaccination

To the Editor: Medical testimony on vaccination closely resembles distillery and brewery testimony on prohibition; it is special pleading rather than evidence.

Dr. John N. Force's article Why Tolerate Smallpox? in your issue of October 15 purports to exhibit smallpox as a present peril in this country, when the facts are quite the other way. He has carefully omitted half the story. While your space will scarcely permit a complete analysis of his argument, I may be permitted reference to a few items.

California is held up on an example of the dire results of vaccination neglect, but nothing is said of the smallpox fatality in California. Why not say that while the state had 2,025 cases in 1923, there was but a single death? Why fail to note that the whole United States in 1923 had 30,907 cases reported as smallpox, 170 of which were fatal? This fatality rate of .0055 was lower than that of any other contagions with the exception of the non-fatal diseases, chickenpox and mumps.

When the conditions accompanying the high fatality rate in the outbreaks in Denver, Kansas City, and Detroit are known, there is no mystery about them. Detroit official reports admit that certain experimental treatment was administered to the hospitalized cases in that city; among other things a new serum or two. Although not, so far as I know, officially reported, "new serums" were employed in the epidemic of 1921-2 in both Denver and Kansas City. Not only was it common talk, but press reports gave it out as a matter of epidemic news of a supposedly hopeful character.

Before that, with practically no medical treatment at all, and often with very little care, even pest house smallpox has been a disease with an extremely low mortality. Nor is this anything new. Three hundred years ago, Dr. Sydenham, "father of English medicine," wrote: "If no mischief be done by physician or nurse, smallpox is the lightest and safest of diseases." Inoculation first, and then vaccination, have caused the medical profession to magnify its dangers, in order to induce the application of the preventive in vogue at the time; until now, with evidence piling ever higher against the practice, the doctors are in the position of the man with the bear by the tail.

Dr. Force's German argument will not bear scrutiny. That country did not suddenly become unvaccinated in wartime, but sanitation broke down, food was poor and scanty, physiques were weakened. Herr Hoffman Socialist member of the Reichstag reported in that body in 1917 that smallpox was raging in the north and that vaccination was unable to check it.

L. C. W. Little

Secretary, American Medical Liberty League, Inc.

Dr. Force Replies

To the Editor: My purpose in the article in question was to show that the respiratory group of communicable diseases cannot be eradicated by the means which have been found successful in the insect borne and intestinal groups. The fluctuations of the respiratory group depend on the state of immunity of the population, not on the condition of the environment. A given population may build up an immunity by the slow wasteful method provided by Nature: i. e., the disease runs its course until the reservoir of susceptibles is exhausted, when it returns to a low level where it remains until a new reservoir of susceptibles is created. Artificial immunization anticipates the method of Nature by rapidly exhausting the reservoir of susceptibles.

Smallpox illustrates these principles, and I endeavored to show that in this disease we have increased our reservoir of susceptibles to a marked degree because its extreme mildness has caused it to be treated with extreme indifference. There are only a few places where the severe or Asiatic type has been prevalent recently. The extreme prevalence of the mild or African type is creating a wall of defense against the severe type. In other words the American people seem to prefer to acquire immunity by having smallpox rather than by being vaccinated. This method is just as sure but is more of a reflection on our intelligence when we might easily prevent either type.

I am very glad to supply the information concerning the fatality in California and in addition I present the distribution of the cases with respect to vaccination history which may be of interest to persons trained to think scientifically.

			Vaccination History			
Year	*Cases*	*Deaths*	*Within 7 years*	*Over 7 years*	*Never vacc.*	*Unknown*
1920	4,497	7	36	301	3,889	271
1921	5,579	21	47	340	5,108	84
1922	2,129	20	30	131	1,952	16
1923	2,026	1	27	91	1,906	2
1924	9,445	56	57	356	8,978	54

I am at a loss to know what new sera were used in Denver, Kansas City and Detroit. Sera from recovered cases contain antibodies against the disease apparently identical with those found in the blood after vaccination. The administration of this serum has influenced some cases but the results have not been encouraging as this serum does not combat the secondary infection by streptococci which is the principle factor of difference between the mild and severe types. The old adage about the "ounce of prevention" is well exemplified in the serum treatment of smallpox.

The benign type does not "turn into" the severe type, but the severe type appears to be on the increase. The benign type is not new, so we cannot explain its present mildness in terms of improved sanitation. The record of deaths from smallpox in London between 1660 and 1680, quoted in the first report of William Farr, shows the wide fluctuation of succeeding years in the time of Sydenham.

Deaths from Smallpox in London

Years	*Deaths*	*Years*	*Deaths*	*Years*	*Deaths*	*Years*	*Deaths*
1661	1,246	1666	38	1671	1,465	1676	359
1662	768	1667	1,196	1672	696	1677	1,678
1663	411	1668	1,987	1673	1,116	1678	1,798
1664	1,233	1669	951	1674	853	1679	1,967
1665	655	1679	1,465	1675	2,507	1680	689.

Granting that smallpox raged in Germany in 1917 on account of poor sanitation, poor and scanty food, and weakened physiques, it is remarkable that these detrimental influences could so far be overcome in six years that only 17 cases occurred in a population of 60,000,000 in 1923.

On the other hand if these factors are responsible for the increase of smallpox it is remarkable that California (4,000,000 population) should have had 9,445 cases in 1924. One half of these cases were in children. But a recent study of San Francisco children shows that the Baldwin-Wood standard height-age-weight tables cannot be used in checking up the state of their nutrition as "San Francisco school children average from one to three inches taller and are from one to two

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pounds heavier than the school children of the same age and sex in the other parts of the United States."

If this is true for a large city, it is assuredly true for the state as a whole. Evidently we must find some other cause than malnutrition for over 4,000 cases of smallpox in California children in 1924.

The true explanation will be found by anyone who reads the excellent article by Chester H. Rowell entitled The Cancer of Ignorance which appeared in The Survey for November 1, 1925.

JOHN N. FORCE
Professor of Epidemiology,
University of California.

Soldiers and Civilians

TO THE EDITOR: One may or may not accept the conclusions drawn by Carter Harrison in The Survey of November 15, in his brief for civil agencies taking over the problems of the ex-service man, but there seems a doubt that his apparent claim, "There is no difference between the mental attitude of the dependent ex-service group and the dependent industrial group," is ill-founded.

I say "apparent claim" advisedly for, oddly enough, he says one thing but appears to have an entirely different concept in at the time. He makes his mythical Dr. A. say, apropos of this thesis: "Is the mental attitude of an ex-soldier essentially different from that of other citizens with whom he has been associating for the seven years since the war ended?" It is not—and there is where the misunderstanding begins. The question should be: "Is the mental attitude of the dependent ex-soldier different from that of the dependent industrial group alongside of whom he has has lived all his life but among whom he has not previously appeared except as an individual phenomenon?" It is, fundamentally and irrevocably.

The first question applies to the social philosophy of the advantaged community group, of which the ex-service group is a component part and whose social philosophy is identical with that of its major representative; the second question applies to the consciously disadvantaged ex-service group only. There is both a distinction and a difference between these two hypothetical questions.

In the first instance, both the civilian and the ex-soldier groups have the common feeling of superordination over the dependent in the community, which runs the gamut of superiority from plain indifference to contemptous pity. The ex-soldier shared in this mental attitude; in fact, he had no other. "The unfortunate was there by choice; he didn't have to be unless he wanted to. There is something wrong with him if he had to ask help from the neighbors. The operatives of the relief machinery were there to see that the seeker after doles realized his position; that he was properly humble, and that he understood that what he gets is not his as any "right" but is due to the kindly beneficence of his betters—in passing it is conceded that not all this feeling is conscious on the part of the operatives. It is merely all in the day's work with them.

The appearance of the ex-service group is something new in the experience of the relief operatives. The ex-soldier did not come with any sense of an inferior or as a suppliant, but as the claimant of a just right. He shocked the employer by his independence or impudence on the job; he appalled the operatives of ordinary casework machinery by his impertinence and lack of appreciation for benefits promised, even if not forthcoming. He brought his past mental habits with him. He scorned the "mourners bench"; he did not want charity but clamored for what he called "justice." He no more thought of claiming fellowship with the garden variety of dependent than he did with the "Hun." Oddly enough, the community at large agrees with him; he has made a start toward cashing in on his claims and will likely go far with them, as citizens are but little disposed to question his demands. He is not emulating the industrial dependents but the "go-getters" out of whose loins he is sprung.

It may be that the Red Cross will withdraw from the care of the ex-service group but it will not be due to any ideas of "Dr. A." It will be because the ex-soldier will set up his own machinery to deal with his problems. But the Red Cross may well take the responsibility of seeing that civilian agencies afford a reasonable standard of care for the ex-service group which will still fall among civilian agencies. In conclusion, it should be kept in mind that for working purposes "ex-soldier" should read "ex-world war veteran." The older veterans and post-war discharges don't count for very much anywhere. No, the ex-soldiers "mental attitude" is not different from that of the citizens among whom he lives—He'll tell the world!

W. S. GOODRICH
Care A. R. C. Detterman Hospital,
San Francisco.

Christian Science

TO THE EDITOR: I have read with more than ordinary interest the ably written, but nevertheless misleading article in so far as Christian Science is concerned, by Chester H. Rowell, appearing in your November issue. Inasmuch as our critic has included within the range of his target practically every known theory that happens to run counter to his own peculiar views it is not surprising that he should fire more than one of his loosely framed criticisms at Christian Science. Fortunately, however, the firing of empty criticisms is much like the explosion of blank cartridges. Aside from being a noisy and disagreeable practice it does little harm.

It is quite evident that in his efforts to prove Christian Science anti-scientific our friend has failed intelligently to examine the meaning of the word science, as it is defined by responsible lexicographers and used in Christian Science. Webster, as an example, tells us that science consists of "knowledge duly arranged and referred to general rules and principles on which it is founded and from which it is derived." Accepting Webster's definition as correct it can hardly be denied that the teachings of Christianity are entitled to be designated as scientific since they refer directly to that fundamental Truth described in the Bible as God and which must be regarded, according to Scriptual teachings, as the underlying and governing Principle of the spiritual universe, including man. Indeed, if the dependability of Scriptural authority is to be conceded one is justified in saying that the only knowledge truly scientific and useful to mankind is a demonstrable understanding of Spirit and spiritual being. Jesus it will be recalled said plainly, "It is the Spirit that quickeneth; the flesh profiteth nothing"; while Paul with his usual directness, tells us that, "The wisdom of this world is foolishness with God."

Thus, both the Master and the Great Apostle to the Gentiles have made it plain that the only real scientific knowledge is a practical comprehension of that eternal Truth, an understanding of which we are told "maketh all men free." Christian Science, therefore, holds that the application of the world science to a system of religious teaching based upon this divine Truth and subject to proof by demonstration constitutes a proper use of that word. By way of explanation I may add that over a period of more than half a century the adherents of the Christian Science religion have through practical application demonstrated the Science of their Christianity in the way pointed out by the Master, healing the sick and reforming the sinner by purely spiritual means. This fact has not only made a profound impression upon ministers and physicians but has come to be accepted by many as irrefutable proof that the religion founded by Mrs. Eddy is both Christian and scientific in its teachings and practice.

CHARLES E. HEITMAN
Christian Science Committee
on Publication

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Do Tell. A Bit of Gossip Now and Then Is Relished by the Best of Men

California, Ohio and Indiana take notice. The New York State Conference of Charities and Corrections, held recently in New York City, had a registration of more than 1100. If we could lift these four conferences bodily to Cleveland next May, they would provide a substantial basis for the National Conference.

Who Wants a Library?

Scranton set the pace. Last Spring the Social Workers Club of Scranton decided to build a library for its members. Within six weeks they earned a credit of $218.00 in books from The Survey—at no cost to themselves except a little time from each member and a few dollars in postage.

We shall be glad to tell you how they did it, and send you copies of the letters they used.

Reading, Pa., For Example

C. H. A., of Reading, Pa., writes us:

"In your issue of the Survey for October 15, 1925, the business office writing under the initials J. D. K. told about Scranton winning a library of $218.00 worth of books.

"I note with some satisfaction that Reading stands No. 35 in this list. I would like to see our community go up in the scale.

"What is this proposition that you have to offer regarding books as a reward for subscriptions? I shall be glad to hear from you on this subject."

* * *

Read, not Red, If You Please

An advanced class in English for foreigners in a California night school was discussing the radio. Under the leadership of a young German, graduate of a Berlin gymnasium, such questions were brought up as "How will the radio improve international relations?" "Are we wise enough to keep the radio from being merely another propaganda agency?" At the close of the class period the teacher loaned the German youth a copy of the July Survey Graphic, containing Leon Whipple's discussion of the radio. "Say, that's a keen magazine," was the boy's enthusiastic comment when he returned the magazine, "I missed not one word. And I thought before this America published nothing but 'Red Books'!"

* * *

Miss Della Harvey has left for southern California where she will continue to represent The Survey and Survey Graphic for the next few weeks. She has The Survey's book exhibit with her and will welcome invitations to attend meetings, in Los Angeles and its vicinity, of those interested in social work. Address, 942 S. Grandview St., Los Angeles.

Alas, Poor Yorick!

Burr Blackburn is irrepressible. As editor of *Home, School and Community*, Georgia's journal of education and public welfare, he sends the following notice to delinquent subscribers:

ANNOUNCEMENT

"We announce with deep regret the loss of one of our family;—none other than

You Who Read This Notice

"The name was removed from our mailing list, today, because payment of subscription is overdue. During active life he was closer than a brother, encouraging us to produce a better journal for progress in Georgia Education and Public Welfare, and to increase our family from 500 in 1923 to nearly 7,000 in 1924.

"Handicapped though we may be by this serious loss, we shall continue a winning fight to make Georgia a better state in which to rear a child. We ask all our friends and supporters to mourn with us in our deep bereavement over our affliction —unless—oh flickering hope! we should receive by return mail, a renewal subscription indicating that our brother who was lost is found again!"

Would that we had thought of that letter. Would that we never had use for its like. It's up to you who read this column.

* * *

What Makes a Good Conference?

There has been much discussion of the wisdom of holding a state conference in a large city. The arguments against the large city usually center around two points: Isn't a small city in greater need of education? And aren't there so many distractions in a large city that attendance at the meetings may be meager? The New York State Conference wisely anticipated the latter objection. Only two meetings, out of a possible three, were scheduled for the evening and no meeting, except those of kindred groups, for the afternoons. As a result, those who came from a distance and whose opportunities for enjoying New York City are limited to infrequent visits, were able to do Christmas shopping, attend theatres and museums, or to visit the welfare institutions. The conference attendance was larger than usual because of these opportunities for out-of-town people and because of the ease with which a multitude of busy (or sophisticated) metropolitan workers could attend. By careful and courageous planning of the program, more ground was covered in a more interesting way, than is usual at state conferences.

This business of running a conference deserves much thought and planning. Edward Eyre Hunt, in "Conferences, Committees, Conventions, and How to Run Them", ($2.00 postpaid of The Survey) points out that a conference in Washington at which fifty people were brought together for two days, cost, in time away from the job, transportation, lodging and personal expenses, about $7,000. Analogous figures for a state conference are not available but the implication is clear that such a conference costs thousands of dollars which do not appear in the secretary's budget. This cost is borne by the members individually or by the organizations which pay their expenses. That is why it behooves all social workers to insist on their state conference having a competent full time secretary (as many states have) and to know enough of conference technique themselves to require a high grade of performance on the part of the secretary.

* * *

Food for Thought

Mrs. F. A. H. writes:

"The baby ate your special Christmas subscription offer. Please send me another, if there is still time. I do not think she is so hungry now, and perhaps I can get it first."

We answer:

"I am hastening to send you with this letter an additional copy of our Christmas offer and the gift cards. Survey Graphic is fine for gifts, but I should suppose very poor food. It may fill the baby up but it will scarcely make her grow."

Mrs. H. replies:

"Thank you for your personal letter. I blush as I write it but I think the baby got away with the cards and Christmas offer that you enclosed. She seemed to feel that your letter was too important for food, however, or perhaps her appetite was stayed for the moment. I am enclosing check to cover two subscriptions. I think you are wrong about the Survey Graphic not making the baby grow. It certainly contains food for thought. What worried me was that it might cause too rapid an intellectual development for a woman, particularly such a young woman, but I feed her a little of the Theatre Magazine as an antidote occasionally which doubtless will prove effective."

Maybe the baby ate the circular *you* received, and thus deprived one of your friends of his Christmas gift. It isn't too late to send him Survey Graphic for 1926. We'll explain to him about the baby.

J. D. K.

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The Framework of the State

(*Continued from page 471*)

It would seem to be clear that no economies effected on the business side of these institutions, even if they continue under a new administration, could offset the wholesale violation of the sound principle of selection of experienced and technically qualified men for the heads of institutions and their continuity in office during good behavior and satisfactory service. If each new administration is to involve a change, not only in the head of the department, but in the technical positions of medical superintendents of hospitals, and the appointment of persons without suitable qualifications, the worst evils of twenty and thirty years ago are bound to recur.

The designation of a commission largely similar to the present State Hospital Commission as head of the new Department of Mental Hygiene in New York state is being regarded with favor by a number of persons who have made a close study of this problem. The merging into one Department of Mental Hygiene of the work of the State Hospital Commission and the State Commission for Mental Defectives, which the reorganization amendment accomplishes, has been welcomed by those interested in mental hygiene as a forward step that should make possible a more vigorous prosecution of the state mental hygiene program. Having in mind the proper representation of the two major divisions of the mental hygiene field—mental disease and mental defect—in the new department, it has been proposed that a commission to head the department be organized as follows: a medical expert in mental diseases as chairman, appointed for an indefinite term as at present; a medical expert in mental deficiency, appointed for a term of six years; and a representative citizen appointed for a term of six years.

With regard to the new Department of Charities, there seem to be equally valid reasons for avoiding one-man control. Good administrative policy recommends that those state institutions which are not placed under the supervision of the State Departments of Mental Hygiene or of Correction be placed under the administrative control of the State Department of Charities. As the State Board of Charities is continued by specific constitutional provision, it would seem advantageous to designate it as the head of the Department of Charities. In that event, the secretary of the State Board of Charities would be in effect the working head of the Department of Charities.

The Department of Charities is in quite a different position from the Mental Hygiene Department. The administrative duties of the Charities Department in any case will not be heavy, even though the miscellaneous group of state institutions is placed under its administrative jurisdiction. The important functions of the State Board of Charities, as defined in the Constitution, are the inspection and recommendations for the improvement of public charitable institutions and of local and private institutions, especially hospitals and institutions for children, which, under the New York system of public aid to private institutions, receive public funds. This is an extraordinarily important function. If private and local institutions are to accept the recommendations of the State Charities Department based on its inspections it is essential that the inspections and the interpretation of the results shall be absolutely above suspicion. The State Board of Charities, besides being non-political with a slowly changing unpaid membership, has long had representatives of the various important religious faiths in

(*Continued on page 521*)

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AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION—K. L. Butterfield, president; Henry Israel, executive secretary. Room 1849, Grand Central Terminal Bldg., New York City. Emphasizes the human aspect of country life. Annual membership $5.00 includes "Rural America" (monthly bulletin) and Annual Conference Proceedings.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Lita Bane, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics: office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director; 370 Seventh Ave., New York. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publication free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

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Dept. of Research and Education, Rev. F. E. Johnson, Sec'y.
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NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Miss Gertrude Vaile, president, Denver, Colo.; W. H. Parker, secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-third annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Cleveland, Ohio, Spring, 1926. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

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The Framework of the State

(*Continued from page* 519)

its membership. It is accepted throughout the state as an impartial and disinterested board, and its recommendations carry great weight by reason of this fact. The preservation of this point of view on the part of the authorities of the institutions which it inspects is the essence of the situation. As it would be questionable in practice to give administrative control to a person or agency other than the one to which inspectorial powers are specifically granted by the Constitution, it seems the only sound procedure to designate the State Board of Charities as the head of the Department of Charities.

The present organization of the State Department of Health with a single medical commissioner at its head falls in line with the reorganization plan. The Public Health Council, which has quasi-legislative powers to adopt statewide sanitary regulations, a matter for highly qualified technical experts, and has also advisory powers, will probably be retained as now constituted. The Health Commissioner is an ex-officio member of this Council.

The question immediately arises: if the Department of Health has been administered under a single commissioner with good results as has been the case in recent years, and if the single commissioner is to be retained under the reorganization plan, why is commission control of the Mental Hygiene and Charities Department advocated? The work of the Health Department is based upon a highly specialized and very technical body of facts. The appointment of an unqualified person would be glaringly inconsistent and it would be no excuse to allege the necessity of putting in "a business man," because the department has practically no business to transact, not having charge of any institutions as is the case with the Mental Hygiene and Charities Departments. The department still carries on under the high prestige given it by the late Dr. Biggs, during a decade of service, and by Commissioner Nicoll, formerly his deputy, now Commissioner of Health; and the general principle of retaining that which is working well would lead to a different result in this case from those we have been considering. Another important consideration is the matter of length of term. If the legislature would see fit to provide that the term of the health commissioner be continued as for six years as at present, carrying through three gubernatorial terms, the most valid objection to one-man contol would be overcome, but to do this would be contrary to the principle of the cabinet system which the reorganization seeks in general to accomplish. If, however, the term of the health commissioner is made co-terminous with the governor's, satisfactory conduct of the department would be impossible with a two-year term for governor and unlikely even with a four-year term. Under commission or board control, longer and overlapping terms, or even an indefinite term as in the case of the medical member of the present State Hospital Commission, would more naturally follow, and would perhaps be more readily adopted by the legislature. The prime reason for advocating commission control, in short, is to provide for the continuous service, during good behavior, of trained experts whose appointments would largely be taken out of politics, a type of service which it would be much more difficult to secure under the cabinet system.

In the new Department of Correction, the head of the department will substantially assume the powers and duties of the present Superintendent of State Prisons, with the exception that the head of the Department of Correction becomes ex-officio chairman of the newly constituted State Commission of Correction, an advisory body which is authorized to visit and inspect all penal institutions for adults.

STANLEY P. DAVIES

The Other Side of Military Training

(*Continued from page* 468)

To my desk a few days ago came the December number of the Ridgefield (Conn.) School Record, an undergraduate publication. I quote from the leading editorial:

> We all need to reflect on the subject of military training. Two or three weeks each year ought not to detract from one's general attitude on life. The government needs young men who have been under army discipline and who have some knowledge of military tactics to be ready in case of war. We do not realize the importance of this now, but some day it may loom unpleasantly before us. . . . We, the coming men of the United States, *must* give ourselves up to the guarding and safekeeping of our growing nation.

So, there is another side than Mr. Lane's to military training. There is the side of those who, like myself, have experienced it and have seen, reluctantly at first, how necessary it is. I think of the young army officers I know who are instructors. Most of them are men with the same degree of emotional balance as you and I have. They are broad-shouldered, clean-minded, modest. Most of them are, or have been, young business men, or teachers, or professional men whom the World War left without a civilian niche. I doubt if some of them know of the existence of the occasional objectionable paragraphs in the drill regulations (those paragraphs which are not necessary to college military training and which might well have been omitted). With the drilling, they talk to the students not of blood and thunder, but of sanitation, hygiene, organization, team work, discipline, courtesy—a dozen subjects which are good for growing boys to know about—but which are not news.

Mr. Lane's pamphlet has its comic relief. At the end, he pleads for the time when America will go back to the position in this matter she held before the war. Back to the rare old, fair old, golden days. He has in mind, no doubt, those glorious days when a million men would spring to arms over night!

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WANTED:—Two family case workers for semi-private organization. Should be graduates of school of social work, and women between ages of 25 and 40 years. Applications should include age, experience, education, references, photograph, and minimum salary acceptable. Address B. T. Hacker, Manager; Duval County Welfare Board, 107 Market St., Jacksonville, Florida.

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HOME MISSIONS COUNCIL AND COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS: St. Louis, Mo. January 21-25. Executive Secretaries, Dr. Charles E. Vermilya and Miss Florence E. Quinlan, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

CONNECTICUT STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Bridgeport. January 26-28. Secretary, Mrs. Cora Conklin, 23 Elm Street, East Haven, Conn.

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RHODE ISLAND STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Providence. Latter part of January. Corresponding secretary, Miss Edith Barnard, 425 Broadway, Providence, R. I.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE: New York City. February 2-5. Secretary, Mr. Eugene K. Jones, 127 East 23d Street, New York City.

PENNSYLVANIA CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL WELFARE: Pittsburgh. February 3-6. President, Miss Mary F. Bogue, Mothers' Assistance Fund, Dept. of Public Welfare, Harrisburg.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE: Chicago. February 19-20. Executive Secretary, C. C. Carstens, 130 E. 22d Street, New York City.

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MISSOURI CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Boonville, Mo. March 14-16. Secretary, E. C. Steger, 2221 Locust Street, St. Louis, Mo.

ALL-PHILADELPHIA CONFERENCE ON SOCIAL WORK: Philadelphia. March 24-26. Secretary, Clara E. Farr, Room 302, 311 So. Juniper Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

LOUISIANA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: New Orleans. April 12-13. For information address Mr. Sherman Conrad, Whitney Central Building, New Orleans.

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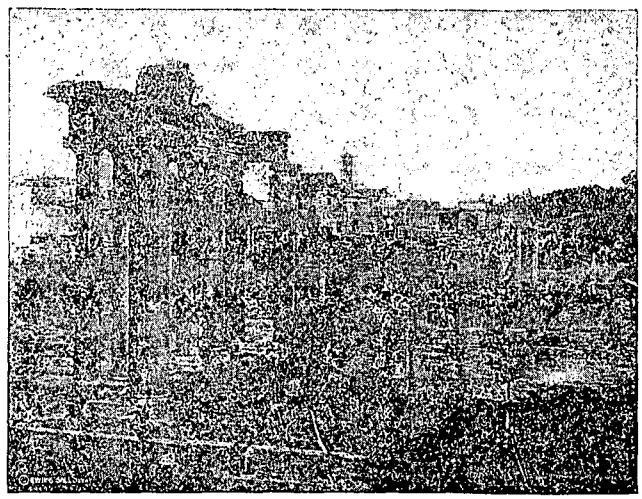

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